The Educational Record

Volume Thirteen Number One

Published by the
The American Council on Education
Washington, D. C.

The Educational Record

Published Quarterly by

The American Council on Education

Volume 13 January, 1932 No. 1

Editor:
C. R. MANN

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Annual Subscription, $2.00

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NATIONAL CAPITAL PRESS, INC., WASHINGTON, D. C.

General Direct

Darkness or Light[1]

A MESSAGE FOR 1932

IT IS customary at the year-end to look back with satisfaction and to face the future with assurance. Today, however, we wish to escape from the past and we gaze ahead with anxiety. For the world is full of loosened boulders and crumbling rocks, coming from we know not where. Many of us are still using the logic of materialism, trying by rule of thumb to chart the curves of past mistakes or the inevitable trends of economic law as if the future of the world could be adjusted by mere coalescence of money and product.

Unfortunately, our grim search for causes has failed to give emphasis to the realities of life—the impersonal attitudes of individuals toward each other, intensified indeed by the strange behavior of organized peoples so that we observe today the full effects of an irresponsible individualism which has multiplied itself many times over into an unenlightened nationalism that knows neither the chivalry of unselfishness nor the tolerance of mutual concession.

We talk of the past as if we truly wished to bring back its supposed gains, its alleged prosperity. But do we really want to go back a decade or two? Is what we have passed through in the last twenty years an ideal to which we would care to revert if we could? What were the nations talking about in 1912? Why, naval holidays and organized peace. And 1914 came to shatter those aspirations. For eighteen years now we have tried to adjust ourselves to the destructive effects of a philosophy as old as primitive man, a savagery as deadly to the human spirit as if jungle law had gone unrepealed.

We have spent the greater part of 1931 blaming each other. We have searched for the culprit who preached the doctrine of speculation and unsound investment, thinking he alone was responsible. We have assumed that the germ could be segregated and guilt made personal in perhaps the banking

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[1] Radio Address delivered over the National Broadcasting Company System, on December 27, 1931.

group, or perhaps the salesmanship group, or perhaps in the unlimited production of excessive quantities of goods. And by the same token we are still groping for a formula that by one means or another of artificial control shall bring back some kind of economic equilibrium to enable us to pay our debts.

Yes; the payment of debts hangs over the whole world like a gathering storm with its flashes of fire ready to strike down great edifices of modern business. In the midst of it all, we hear strange voices, nations that have hitherto respected the morality of pledges and promises, nations that now cry "We cannot pay" in tones that too often mean "We *will* not pay." And we, on our part, join the chorus with the insistent demand "You shall pay, you must pay," a slogan that ignores an age-old relation and forgets that the destruction of the debtor yields no return to the creditor, that trade is not built by isolation and that interchange of goods is the only device which ever produced in normal times a wholesome intercourse between nations.

What is the basis of this newly developed antagonism, this coarseness of spirit and defiance of all that civilization has ever taught us? We fought a war to break down the theory that might makes right. We paid for it in an enormous destruction of human capital and in an unprecedented drain on the credit resources of the world—those pledges of repayment which can only be expressed in mortgages on the earnings of future generations.

It was a terrible price to pay for human progress. It brought a dislocation of the world's economic machinery, first by the subtraction of ten million individuals from mortal life and second by the subsequent miseries of unemployment for twenty-five million more persons. Scarcely had we turned the sod on Flanders' field when the wake began. A decade of debauchery, such as the modern world has never seen, affected the lives of men, women and children everywhere. The worship of gold begot a reckless indifference to all codes, corporate or personal, in an orgy of unrestrained sin.

The state stood by an accessory to the crimes of an ir-

responsible individualism. Selfishness was enthroned in all its cruel majesty. To the faint cries: "This shall never happen again," and the suggestions of a league of peoples to organize mankind, there came the laughter of scorn as if the brotherhood of man had never been given the breath of a dominant religion nineteen hundred odd years ago. And thus we developed our irresponsible individualism into a creed of self-centered nationalism.

We ask: "When will the depression end; when will we recover our economic poise; what formula shall we use to bring business back?", believing still that by waving a magic wand we can set in motion the great forces of profitable business. Are we blind again to the greater necessity of a renaissance of human spirit, an awakening—a new attitude of mind among individuals as well as nations?

It is idle to speak of economic recovery until there has been a fateful change in the attitude of peoples toward each other. And this can come only out of a regeneration of the individual. Intense suffering has always turned our thoughts from selfishness to unselfishness, from irresponsible to responsible individualism.

Could we but spread over the world a new spirit, a new approach to the perplexing problems that are tearing the hearts of mankind, we would be making substantial progress. For we cannot solve our difficulties by merely feeding and clothing the unemployed. We cannot go on from year to year with seven million or more people in our own ranks depressed in spirit, carrying the badge of humiliation and defeat in an economic system that dins into our ears the doctrine of the law of the survival of the fittest and the supposed compensations of a bleeding deflation.

We fought a war to make it possible for democracies to remain. We fought autocracy and the dictatorships that threatened our God-given individualism. But are we prepared to make other sacrifices now to preserve free governments? Are we ready to help other peoples safeguard the cause of liberty bequeathed to us from the revolutionary battlefields of generations past?

If we are not, if we still persist in believing that all will be well with the world while hunger and starvation take their awful toll, as we wait for consumption and production to become naturally adjusted, we are merely dedicating the next five years to the largest social readjustment the world has ever experienced. Two years of the world-wide depression have passed us by while we sit unreconciled to the realities of the upheaval we have felt but failed to understand.

Could we but regard ourselves as interdependent, as nations that must trade with each other, that must lend to each other, that must trust one another, that must give and take in the spirit of reciprocal friendship, we would give courage to the faltering voices of statesmen who see the course we should traverse but who are not emboldened yet by an enlightened public opinion to set their faces to the horizon that beckons them.

What is that course? Where should we go if we could but breathe a new spirit into the world for 1932?

First, we must cast out of our systems the law of retaliation, with its implications of ultimate revenge. We shall never cure injustice by resorting to a contest wherein man destroys man. We shall move forward only by endeavoring to raise the standard of international morality, by invoking the religion of reason and the higher laws of self-abnegation. Translated into the present situation in Europe, this means a political truce between nations on the continent for a period of at least ten years during which time there may be employed once more the healing processes that have in the past broken down a vengeful nationalism.

Second, with mutual trust reestablished, there can be no need for excessive armaments with their economic burdens that tax and destroy business energies and throw budgets out of balance. Debts can be paid once more when budgets are rid of the armament expense which in the past has been defended alone on the theory of the insecurity of peoples.

Third, a restoration of international confidence growing out of a political equilibrium, bringing as it inevitably must, payment of debts and balanced budgets, creates once more

a world market for the bonds of honest peoples. This means that the war debts can be transferred from the governments to the investing public so that there no longer is a distinction between public and private debts but a willingness on the part of all governments and peoples to pay each year the fixed charges on the war indebtedness. This is often described as the commercialization of the debts, something not now possible in a credit disturbed world but eventually logical. By discounting future payments on a cash basis, the debts themselves will be cut down and the whole world can absorb five to six billions of such indebtedness in two or three years without feeling any ill-effects therefrom.

Fourth, a readjustment of trade relations with truly competitive tariffs in place of embargoes and with reciprocity as the foundation stone of international intercourse. Then and only then can large sums be loaned for the encouragement of export and import trade the world over. This may develop, too, an improvement in our credit instrumentalities so that between the so-called long term and the short term may come an intermediate credit to support the huge trade structure we have reared in the past and shall build once more.

We had nine and a half billion dollars' worth of export and import trade before the depression began. We now have about four and a half billion dollars' worth. If we do not sell to other peoples, we cannot buy from them. If we lose foreign trade, we affect 10 per cent of our productive capacity. We cannot survive on a 90 per cent home market and retain our standards of living. We cannot accept the counsel of those who say we must go backward and not forward. We cannot support our increased population by rationing our employment or our payrolls. We must have markets and increased payrolls so that we, too, may buy from abroad and help to sustain others. For to do otherwise is to ignore the twenty-two billions of capital our people have invested in other lands. We cannot see the rest of the world in collapse and expect our own people to escape the repercussion. We want no more bank failures and no loss of confidence due to the ill effects of an enormous loss of capital abroad. It helps

us little to say, "Oh, we can write off that loss and tend to our own affairs." We can never write off a loss of public confidence nor can we expect seven million persons to remain idle while the orthodox economist spreads his chart over a decade of reconstruction in the belief that democracies or free governments will be immunized against epidemics of social disorder by a gospel of patience or the luckless phrases of propagandized optimism.

Nineteen hundred thirty-two may bring us, and we pray that it will bring us, prosperity. But it would be camouflaging our innermost thoughts to predict such an early recovery. There is no justification for judging by the realities that now are so clearly outlined for us. We shall indeed make little progress until we develop a new spirit, and a new approach. The solution of our difficulties lies within our own will and within our own power. We cannot expect a magic transformation of economic elements for it will never come.

So the length of the depression will be measured by the length of time it takes the people of this country and the people of other countries, expressing their will through courageous leaders, to abandon the unreasoning attitude of a decade of selfish, economic and financial warfare. There is a meeting January 18 at The Hague of the European nations that owe war debts. It will be a turning point. Will they accept the seemingly easy course of repudiation and default or will they inspire the world with resoluteness and courage by a determination to find a way to pay? Will they teach their own peoples the doctrine of honored obligations or will they urge them to violate the sancitty of contracts and pledges by following in private life the unmoral example of governments dishonored before the world?

And then in February there will be held at Geneva a conference to discuss the reduction of armament expense. It will prove futile unless underlying such a conference is a new spirit, a new determination to organize the peace of mankind. Europe rose to an emotion of self-sacrifice and mutual good will at Locarno. Can it rise above provincialism at Geneva and inspire the world to believe that the moral force of a

brotherhood of man is a greater goal to attain than the doubtful victories of man-destroying instruments?

The hearts of free people are beating nervously as the test approaches in 1932. And what can we do as the climax draws near? We can turn in these critical hours to the unconquerable spirit of our fathers, the faith that guided the destiny of human life through the dark ages of selfishness and greed in centuries past for, inevitably, the light of reason and conscience that has been dimmed in a decade of irresponsible individualism must shine brightly once more as the new nationalism spreads good will on earth—an enlightened nationalism, an intelligent nationalism, a helpful, kindly and brotherly nationalism which alone can mitigate and relieve the universal suffering of mankind.

DAVID LAWRENCE,
Washington, D. C.

The University of Today[1]

THE local occasion which brings us together is submerged in the international occasion which focuses today the thought of the world upon the coming of the peace. A university is so dynamic in its life that no occasion, however local or however international, is outside the range of its radiation. The campus and the world interact upon each other with generative and regenerative power. A university is more than intellectually dynamic, it is vitally organic with the life streams of the culture of the ages and the present hopes of the poeple. With a rootage as deep as the race and as wide as the world the university grows in local soil for the finding of truth for all and the development of youth in whom are gathered both the local and international hopes of mankind.

A modern university is such a vital and manifold institution, has been so integrated into the structure of western civilization, unbroken in their interconnection since the twelfth century, is so intimately a part of the context of every real problem of the modern world, that any life strand found at hand anywhere running through the life of the world enters into the texture of the modern university. We may work out from that strand into the complex life of the university and back again into the tangled life of the world.

ARMISTICE DAY AND THE UNIVERSITY

This is November 11, 1931, the fourteenth Armistice Day. As we in Chapel Hill go back to the armistice hour of that first day we find, as the minute hand moved close to the hour, a young man, not long from the classrooms and playing fields of this university, was struck down at the head of his men and lay dying as the armistice hour struck the peace for a war-wrecked world. He was one of the tens of thousands of

[1] Inauguration Address delivered at the University of North Carolina, November 11, 1931.

college men killed where danger stretched its farthest front, one of the ten millions of the fittest men on earth killed in four years of war. Greater than the gigantic figures of death, disease, and physical destruction is the uncountable loss of creative intellectual and spiritual power. All gone the training, the potential discoveries, inventions, literature, ideas, and dreams of youth done to death. Disillusionment to those who killed them! With all the heroism and idealism of the war, came also the moral and spiritual damages suffered far from the battlefront by millions caught in the awful backwash of the war and the wreckage of the values of human life and personality. Upon the backs of them who fought the war and whose work sustains a broken and bewildered world is now loaded the crushing costs of the war to be paid by them, their children, and their children's children.

Today, as the sun makes its way across the world to the armistice hour, the peoples of Europe and America become still and silent as they remember their dead and the peace that came. It ties us to all mankind as we listen to the deep stillness of the millions in their silent commemorative aspiration for peace. Here in this beautiful Kenan Memorial Stadium we were silent and joined in the stillness of the peoples in a spiritual fellowship of the hope for peace on earth and goodwill toward men everywhere. We would be untrue to the spirit of this university, which has ever given and will ever give her life and her youth to every call that comes to the idealism and heroism of youth, if we did not link the purpose of this day to the purpose of this university and schools everywhere.

The colleges and universities, by virtue of their humane purpose and the very nature of their social being, have the responsibility of helping to build a world in which the call to the idealism and heroism of youth shall never again be a call to war. It is their function to make realistically intelligent and morally heroic the aspirations and work of mankind toward a warless world, vivid with the unfolding possibilities of cooperative work and play, valorous with the adventures of physical and social mastery, and beautiful with the artistry of the human spirit.

THE COLLEGE

To these high ends stands the university. At the center of the university is the college of liberal arts. In these recent decades the college of liberal arts, as a result of its own incoherence, the advance of the junior college, and the encroachments of the professional and vocational schools, has been subjected to a severe defensive re-examination as to its place in the scheme of higher education. Several fundamental and dramatic experiments are now under way involving both the personalities of the experimenters and the function of the college. Scores of other experiments involving the purpose of the college in general and the curriculum and teaching methods in particular give a various and cumulative content to what has been called "a movement" for the college of liberal arts. The history of the college of liberal arts, whether as the denominational college which heroically blazed the trail for all the others, or as the privately endowed independent college, or as the central college of the modern university, private or state, gives solid ground for such reinvigoration of the college of arts and science. The college of arts and sciences, the foundation college for the professional and graduate schools and service province of them all, has a kingdom of its own and a purpose within its own high nature. This purpose, toward which it has in various forms been groping for centuries, is the development of the more complete human being, a unified victorious personality, increasingly equipped to understand himself and the world in which he is to play his useful and cooperative part. The struggle of the college to find its place and purpose has helped both to reflect the shape and spirit of the age. Any sound reconsideration of the curriculum of the college should be from the approach of historical experience, the unchanging values of the whole human personality, and the needs of the changing times.

1. THE BACKGROUND OF THE CURRICULUM

Amid its mediaeval origins the liberal arts were subordinated to the ecclesiastical ends of preparation for the next world. With the Renaissance, despite all its vivid implica-

tions in the affairs of this world, its recovery of old ideas, its discoveries of a new world and a new way to an old world, a new earth and the new heavens, yet the widening interests of the universities centered largely in the ancient learning as containing all learning. Learning for the next world gave way in part to learning from the classic past. The scientific revolution of the last three centuries brought the minds of the men of the universities from their absorption in the next world and their preoccupations with the ancient culture to a concern for the present and the mastery of this earth and the forces of nature. It came to be thought that the human intellect, with its new sciences, could go beyond the learning of the ancients and bring heaven to earth now, whether in the New Atlantic or in New Worlds for Old.

In these three periods of cultural history—scholastic, humanistic, and scientific—we find curricular adjustments in slow response to the intellectual emphasis of the age. In the mediaeval university, though the secular process was under way, we still found in this stronghold of scholasticism, scorn of the body and this world. Incidentally, it may be said that physical education is yet to break through the scholastic doors and get into the curriculum of this university and many American universities of the twentieth century. During the Renaissance the revived classics had a difficult time winning a place in the curriculum and there are those today who would throw them out altogether. With the rise of the new science, the scholastics and the humanists, who became dominant in the universities, combined to delay the recognition of science on a basis of curricular equality with the humanities. But there can be no mistaking the masterful tones of science today in the universities and in the world. In response to the increasing complexity of modern society there arose in turn the new group of social sciences. The humanities and the natural sciences gave questioning admission to the newer social sciences. "Neither paleontology, as a natural-scientific introduction to anthropology, nor anthropology, as a social-scientific introduction to archaeology and history, is in the curriculum of this university and many

other universities." This questioning is a valid process, but more and more the new social science will prove their saving value in this complex and baffling age.

2. THE BODY AS BASIC TO THE WHOLE PERSONALITY

In so far as the curriculum failed to meet the physical needs of youth in the mediaeval university and the aesthetic and spiritual needs of youth in modern America, it was, and is, incomplete in meeting the needs of the whole human being. The ideal of the liberal college is to develop the whole personality. It is the high witness of the race from the ideal of the Greek philosophers to the findings of the modern psychologists and biologists that youthful training should be based on the unity of the human being. William James said that every experience involves the neural mechanism. Professor Conklin from his Princeton and Woods Hole biological laboratories says, "More and more science is recognizing the unity of the entire organism; structure and function, body and mind, are parts of one living whole." Neglect of the body, then, is a neglect of an instrument of thought and feeling. The whole personality participates for better or worse in every physical or mental or emotional expression of the human being. Damage to the body cuts down the intellectual and emotional capacities. Deficiencies in the training of the physical senses short-circuit much of the beauty and glory of the world. Resiliency of the body brings resiliency of the mind. Generous energies make for the liberal spirit. Yet the college would miss its purpose in exalting the physical and athletic to the subordination of the intellectual and spiritual. Athletics should be a means on the way to something higher. Physical education, with its courses in physiology and hygiene, its gymnasium, playing fields, intramural sports, and the promotion of both indoor and outdoor volunteer play, would constitute the wholesome groundwork of both the general physical well-being and college sports. The varsity teams would then be the democratic and natural but the none the less crowned products of a community participation in athletics. The college would then work through the body,

through sports and sportsmanship, hardihood, courage and fair play, to a higher human code, and to the imaginative release of the human spirit through sport into the building of a more beautiful personality.

3. INTELLECTUAL CONTENT AND TRAINING

With the recognition of the indispensable values of the body, the college of liberal arts can then justly and more successfully insist on that excellence in intellectual training which is one of its basic concerns. The body will be better equipped and more alert to respond to a trained mind. This basic need for trained minds recurringly raises the question as to what are the best subjects for intellectual discipline and excellence. This question takes us, as we have noticed, into the historical midst of the fifteenth and sixteenth century struggle as to the comparative intellectual and spiritual values of the sacred and secular learning and the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth century battle of the classics and the sciences. It also takes us into the midst of the nineteenth century rivalry between the ancient and modern languages and between the elective system and required courses once considered essential for formal discipline. It finds us now in the very center of the twentieth century pull between the humanities, natural sciences and older social sciences on one side and the newer social sciences on the other.

In these days, when we hear, on one side, that the liberal arts college in the university should be abolished and university work be made immediately professional and vocational or of senior college and graduate grade, and, on the other side, that the liberal arts education should not only be divorced from any specific connection with the professions and vocations but should not include any subject that has any utilitarian value, it is well for us not to be dogmatic, but to try to keep our historical perspective and preserve our cultural balance. Well on in the nineteenth century we hear James Russell Lowell say that a university should be a place where nothing useful is taught and Ezra Cornell say that a university should be a place where any student could study anything he

wanted to know. As we listen to the dead masters of the arts and sciences speaking on the subject of the content, distribution, and values of the liberal courses, Francis Bacon, Milton, Goethe, Cardinal Newman, John Stuart Mill, Huxley, Charles W. Eliot, Gilman, Harper, James R. Angel, Benjamin Ide Wheeler, Charles R. Van Hise, David Starr Jordan, and Edwin A. Alderman, or the living teachers, thinkers and experimenters in the field of a liberal education, we may dare to adapt their liberal view to modern developments and sum them up essentially in saying that a liberal education should include those matters every human being should know, as a human organism, as an intelligent citizen, and as a spiritual personality, about himself, his body, his mind, and his emotions; the race, its origin and historical development; the economic and political structure of society and its human implications; some languages, the essence of the great literatures, arts, philosophies and religions of mankind, with some limitations on the breadth of the distribution of courses and some provision for the depth of concentration in the field of a special interest. The physical and mathematical sciences, the biological sciences, the social sciences, and the humanities constitute the main divisions in America's most daring and dramatic curricular adventure. Many American colleges are now working out the values of some such curriculum. It is important that we do not merely imitate. We can, as we tentatively explore the curriculum, keep our minds open to these welcome experiments out of which are to come values, we believe, for all our colleges and universities.

In the mastery of these liberal subjects, if reenforced by master teachers with laboratories, observatory, library, music hall, theatre, studio, galleries, museum and the world of nature, will come limitless opportunities for mental discipline and student self-education in exactness in observation, relentless analysis, logical organization of materials and ideas, clear exposition, appreciation of truth, beauty, and moral heroism, and practice in expressing in various art forms more beautifully what is deep in the mind and soul of youth.

4. THE CAMPUS

Supplementing the classroom, the library, and the laboratory is the campus. Sometimes, unfortunately, the campus and its activities supplant the classroom, the library and the laboratory. Sometimes they doubtless partly serve to make up for the lack of imaginative vitality and the opportunity to participate creatively in the learning process. These activities are vivid with personalities and the warm currents of youthful life, with opportunities of leadership and cooperation, and challenging with problems of freedom and self-government. The campus should not supplant or merely supplement, but can, with well-balanced activities and wise and sympathetic guidance, organically reenforce the purpose of the college to develop the whole human being, the integrated view, and the creative life.

5. THE INTEGRATED VIEW AND SPIRITUAL VALUES

Above campus activities, curriculum and content, above intellectual power itself, is the spirit of culture, the integrated view, the understanding mind that sees in deep perspective and in wide relation. There is no magic in the liberal arts course to make the liberal mind. A student may master the words and syntax of a language and miss the majesty and beauty of the literature. He may work daily in the stacks and miss the decisive significance of the library as the reservoir of the race from which the streams of history gather momentum and direction. He may make an efficient routine of work in the laboratory and fail to realize that in quiet laboratories work the scholars who are blazing now the obscure trails which are to become the highways of the world's life. He may with his microscope identify the particles of an electron and miss the personality next to him in the laboratory. He may with his telescope get a sense of the sweep of the universe and may fail to develop the imaginative sympathy that senses for him the struggles and sweep of mankind through history. He may learn historical facts and miss the influence of the moral heroism of Socrates or a Wilson or the spiritual beauty of Saint

Francis or a Florence Nightingale. He may discover or dig out facts and have no sense of humility or opportunity in the presence of the implications of the discovery of truth for mankind. The teacher's opportunity comes in the opportunity to help the student develop not only mental discipline, mastery of content, and intellectual excellence, but also an attitude of mind, an intelligent response to heroic situations and an appreciative assimilation into the core of his own character the nobility in the lives of those whom he meets in books and in life. The liberal education would give both depth and breadth to the mind and would embrace in its deepening processes of integration the spiritual values of human personality.

This integrated view includes within its range not only the unity of the courses and groups of courses which constitute the content of the liberal arts and sciences, but also the unity of the race and more and more the unity of the universe. Departments of knowledge, despite elaborate separation, overlap and merge in other departments. Conklin says, for example, that psychology and education are branches of biology because they are all studies of living things. Then for example, physics is geological, biological and chemical in nature. Astronomical and mathematical physics, with its seventeenth century universe of a fixed reference frame and immutable laws of nature, which God himself respected, carried over its influence and contributed to the political conception of a constitution of fundamental law and the inalienable rights of man which the king, himself, with his claim of divine rights had to respect. The mechanical conception of the universe, reenforced by a mechanical civilization, went over into the preconception of a mechanically self-balancing economic system operating automatically according to immutable economic laws. There is the trace of this mechanical influence as a strand in the weaving of the classical economics of the nineteenth century, the behavioristic psychology of the twentieth century, and varying forms of the mechanistic philosophy in the last two centuries. Biology, with its theory of evolution, reenforced the preconceptions of a free competitive society and the philosophy of war. Thus we see from these

fragmentary and often fugitive bits of influences the deep interrelation of physics, mathematics, biology, psychology, economic and political theories, and a philosophy of life. The integrated view of the many strands and influences that go into the making of our lives and our philosophy that can come from the new curriculum of the college is essential not only to a student's better understanding of himself and the most acute problems of the modern age, but is essential also to a view of the universe.

We listen to a great American physicist as he traces the steps in the gradual integration of the six formerly rigorously separated branches of physics on the way to becoming one great whole. The professor of theoretical physics in the University of Berlin recently writes that the study of philosophy, once in scientific disrepute, is coming back with a new meaning and a wider power. Professor Planck points out that, as scientific research by its conquest of the world of sense "simplifies the world picture of physics, the structure of the physical world moves further and further away from the world of sense." What Professor Planck points out as the increasing simplification of the world picture becomes the basis for a more integrated view of the universe. We deeply need the values in the integrated view of the great philosophers. The scientist and philosopher are approaching a more respectful meeting in the presence of the mystery of life and the universe. Haldane moves from matter to mechanism to life to personality to spirituality. Personality, as an evolutionary achievement, reveals the spiritual quality of the materialistic process. From physics we go into metaphysics. Matter becomes energy, and energy brings us to the borderland of a universe, seen and unseen, the reverberations of whose moral sovereignty are in the inner man in answer to the intuitions and aspirations of the human spirit.

As in life so in college, subjects, ideas, and processes cannot be kept in separate departments. We should in college, if for no other reason than convenience, have departments of subjects but not compartments of knowledge. The very fluidity of ideas and the organic nature of life processes makes it

necessary that in our very respect for specialization and the value of departments we should from time to time reexamine the curriculum. Let us welcome the scores of experiments under way all over America and not adopt any of them by way of imitation but adapt what is good as we venture on our own account according to our own needs. In no other way than by the integrated view can we understand the wider implications of the specialized knowledge. Only with the whole view can we build up correlative social control of the new forces and mechanisms let loose upon the world by specialized knowledge with the power to destroy or rebuild the structure of the modern world.

These are the high stakes for which the college would play its part. Its conception of the unity of learning, the unity of life and the unity of the universe makes for a sense of the spiritual potentiality of the total personality. This integrated view makes for a sense of the spiritual essence of civilization, even in its gathered fragments transmitted more and more from age to age with the possibility of being transformed into the Kingdom of God according to the pattern of Him who was the master teacher of the inner way of the integrated life.

THE PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS

In the rebuilding of the civilization of the Kingdom, we need not only the specialized knowledge and the integrated way of life but also specialized ways of making a living. The college is based on the idea of Jesus that man does not live by bread alone; but we must remember that the first petition in the Lord's Prayer is "Give us this day our daily bread." Youth, to play a significant part in the world's life, needs a specialized skill, a vocation, a profession. The vocational and professional schools came in America largely outside the universities on account of the gaps in the university structure. This specialized skill in law, medicine, pharmacy, agriculture, engineering, education, business, journalism, and public administration and welfare was learned by the apprentice on the job. But as the professions and vocations became more complex, proprietary schools of law, medicine, pharmacy, and

business arose to meet a real life need. Schools of religion have a rightful place in the modern university. The School of Religion at Duke University has high potential value to the whole South. In time the joint processes of the specialization and integration of knowledge in all the fields resulted in the incorporation of all professional schools and some high grade vocational schools within the framework of the university.

The university needs the professional schools with their specialized knowledge, equipment, and skill, their high standards of scholarship, their spirit of work, thoroughness, and excellence. The professional schools, assimilated into the organic structure of the university, need the university with its wide variety of skills, interests, and contacts; its general resources, and wholeness of view. Consider the reciprocal contributions of Osler, Welch and Hopkins, the Pound group and Harvard, the Russell group and Columbia, Shailer Mathews and Chicago.

The professional schools, while raising the standards of specialized scholarship, need to be concerned more and more with the liberal cultural equipment of the master. The teacher in the professional school is in a strategic position to preserve and carry forward the liberal culture and the general view. He can bring to a focus on the most highly technical problem all the historical, economic, social, psychological. political or philosophic influences which converge upon it with implicating power. In the law schools there is the beginning of the recognition of the value of the liberal reenforcement of the most highly technical knowledge. For example, a professor who received his liberal arts training in a southern university, his doctorate in economics in the middle west, is teaching torts in the law school of an eastern university. Another who has the liberal arts degree, the doctorate of philosophy in economics and politics, and two law degrees, is, despite his youth, already a productive scholar and able teacher of law. A new professor of pharmacy in this university has a liberal training as the foundation of, and doctorate of philosophy on top of, his special scientific training. Without

making a fetish of degrees, this liberal training is basic to a wholesome attitude of mind in professional training. Some of the most scholarly and liberally cultured minds in America are in schools of engineering, commerce, agriculture, education and other highly professional schools. Many, also, who have never seen a college have a spirit of the rarest culture distilled from nature, books and life. These men have been careful not to set method over against liberal learning. With a view to cultural and human implications of the most specialized knowledge, they find themselves in the midst of work and culture, surging life and the difficult, but at times thrilling, processes of rebuilding a world.

A teacher in an east Carolina city communicated the flame within his heart to men and women who transformed communities, became teachers, superintendents of schools, and presidents of several southern colleges and universities. A permanently crippled but youthful ex-Confederate, no longer master of slaves but master of botany and chemistry, scientifically remade old plantations, built mills, endowed a college and became the source of hope to people over a wide area. A later youth, trained culturally in the South and vocationally in the North, brought back into the southern piedmont a kit of tools and a youthful dream for a venturesome part in refounding the structure of our southern civilization. A young lawyer in a public religious meeting, standing up for freedom of scientific inquiry against the tides that rolled in upon him, stood unmoved in the tumult, steadfast in the strength of science, history, the humanities, and the religion of Jesus which mustered to his almost lonely side. Many business men in these hard times are draining their reserves and are taking their losses standing up in order that people may have work and food. Editors, with courage for opprobrium and financial loss, have fought the fight of the inarticulate peoples and of despised minorities. Physicians daily minister to the bodies, minds and spirits of men. Rabbis, priests, and preachers come out of lonely vigils to sustain the sympathies, courage, and faith of men in cruel times. To lawyers, doctors, pharmacists, teachers, journalists, business men, scientific engineers, social

engineers, statesmen, and ministers of religion; to them with the depth of a specialized mastery and the cultural breadth of an imaginative mind, there open professional opportunities as wide as the needs of the people.

THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

But a group of professional schools around the college do not make a university. Without a graduate school there can be no university. Post-graduate courses do not make a graduate school. The American Association of Universities, essentially an association of graduate schools, founded in 1900 by Presidents Eliot, Gilman, and Harper in the interest of excellence in graduate research, holds as one of its present requirements for membership that a university be equipped in faculty, laboratories, general library, and special source materials to give the degree of doctor of philosophy in five departments. However adequate be the laboratories and supplies, departmental libraries and source materials, carrells, seminar rooms and all the valuable facilities for thorough research, without great scholars the whole apparatus of research may become as so much sounding brass. There can be no great graduate school and no great university without great teachers. A good part of a lifetime given by day and by night on scant resources to the deep exploration of a field is the price of the scholarship of the master. No smattering and no sham; only thoroughness and excellence among the masters. Several groups of these masters, distinguished in different fields, prevent unchecked specialization in any one field. These various groups of eminent scholars, seekers for truth, and teachers, by the very interrelation of fields, intellectual interchange, and coordination on the level of graduate excellence are integrated into the university. The university guidance of graduate work should make impossible research in ultra-scholastic and utilitarian trivialities, but at the same time should not by a routine uniformity or traditional control cramp the vigorous and autonomous life of schools and departments. Tradition and routine should give way to excellence. The quality of the college, the professional schools,

and the whole university is renewed from and advanced by the excellence of the graduate school. The college of arts and sciences is the youthful heart of the university, the professional schools are its skillful arms, and the graduate school is its crowning glory.

1. RESEARCH AND TEACHING

The two particular functions of the graduate school are to train students in research and to prepare students to teach. The two functions, though separate in their techniques, reenforce each other in the unity of the graduate purpose for the advancement of knowledge and the well-being of the race. In some universities three-fourths of the graduate students become teachers. A great teacher, without publication of his researches, is sometimes an apparently unrecognized gift of God to his generation. Yet research is a resource of the teacher. There is a sense of reverent humility in him who has to dig in the sources for his own facts and ideas. There is often a contagious enthusiasm communicated to the students by the teacher who comes fresh from the mine bringing the ore in the hands that dug it out. Research on the part of the teacher in the humanities and sciences deepens the content and insight of the teacher and makes available fresh resources for other teachers; develops the scholarly research spirit in many students, and thus widens the association and the interchange of the ideas of teachers and scholars around the earth who, by their patient discovery and teaching of truth, are doing their hopeful bit toward the gradual making of a better world.

2. RESEARCH ON ITS OWN ACCOUNT

Research, apart from teaching, has values on its own account. It was James Madison's patient and thorough researches into the structure of the Ancient, Western European and Colonial governments that enabled him, as a practical statesman in the Critical Period, to guide the framing of the Constitution of the United States. Hertz, the German research scholar, standing on the pure researches of the English

professor, Clerk Maxwell, discovered the idea out of which Marconi, the Italian, invented the mechanism for wireless telegraphy. The researches and hypotheses of Copernicus, Galileo, and Kepler helped to make possible the theory of gravitation which came from the integrating mind of Isaac Newton, or, as President Walter Dill Scott calls him, Professor Newton of Cambridge University. The American Professor Michelson, by his researches, helped to prepare the way for the new revolutionary theory of the German Professor Einstein.

3. THE UTILITY OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

If we were to recapitulate with President Scott the list of the names of the men whose researches in pure science have not only explored the far reaches of the universe and the inside of the atom but also discovered the scientific principles on which is erected the technological structure of our modern industrial civilization, we would call, for the most part, the names of college professors and quiet relentless seekers for truth in university laboratories. He has estimated that college and university research makes possible in a normal time the production of more wealth in America in one year than has been spent on all the colleges and universities since John Harvard founded the college under the elms in Cambridge. It was also estimated that the results of college and university research in the pure sciences as the basis for sanitary and hydraulic engineering, personal health and public health, save in America the lives of one million people a year.

4. THE GRADUATE SCHOOL AND ORGANIZED RESEARCH

In the complicated modern world, it was inevitable that research should be organized in institutes, councils, and big industries. Mr. Vernon Kellogg has pointed out that the research organizations are dependent on the colleges and universities for manning and recruiting their staffs. The graduate school is par excellence the training ground for research, organized and unorganized. In graduate research there is no immediate profit motive, and the student has the unadulterated scientific freedom necessary for training in research.

Deeply specialized as is research it should for that very reason keep its connection with all divisions of graduate work and never narrow its special eye to the wider implications of the smallest bit of truth found in the laboratory or library stacks or tentatively guessed on a walk about the campus or in some lonely nook in the woods or where you will. In the meagerly equipped laboratories of this university before the twentieth century and since, the researches of unpretentious scholars in the natural sciences have been recognized for their value to learning and mankind by scholars on four continents.

5. RESEARCH IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

The social sciences, of course, are lagging behind the natural sciences. For the most part they have risen in recent times. Scholars in the social sciences have a tremendous task to bring their researches up to the needs of the times. Individuals in graduate schools and organizations here and there are doing heroic work, with civilization itself as the stakes of social mastery. On account of the complicated nature of our social structure, institutes for research in the social sciences are being organized mainly and naturally within the universities as, for example, the Institute of Human Relations at Yale. The Institute for Research in the Social Sciences is an indispensable reenforcement of the graduate resources and impulses of this university in the unexplored fields of the social sciences. Together with the pioneer department of rural social-economics, the departments of economics, education, history, sociology, psychology, and the law school, it is making realistic studies and significant contributions to the better understanding of the human and social implications of our economic, political, and legal structure. The Institute has had considerable regard for interracial relations with all their problems of human injustice and unequal opportunity in the present South. These researches in interracial relations are based on the human attitude that, with all our racial solidarities and wisely pragmatic expedients of social separation, especially here in the South, the two great races have fundamentally a common destiny in building a nobler civilization and,

that if we go up, we go up together. The University Press has made these researches available for the people of the South and has carried forward an intellectual exchange with scholars and institutions over the world. Five of the books from this Press have made the League of Nations list for international intellectual cooperation.

a. Research, Integrated Thinking, and War

Scholars, colleges, universities, and research agencies all over the world need to join their intellectual and spiritual resources in research and make specialized and integrated studies of the problems whose social consequences reach around the world and down the ages. The World War and the world economic depression have taken their toll in human lives, human well-being and happiness beyond measurement or imagination. Wars and depressions throw their cruel and sinister shadows across the homes of the people on all the continents of this earth. We, who, in our scientific pride, consider that we have mastered the earth, stand baffled in the midst of these two mighty foes of every locality and all mankind. The very fact of recurring wars and recurring depressions raises a question as to the quality of our education and the sincerity of our religion. The people in a world in which such depressions and wars can recur are not yet intellectual and spiritual in the control of their institutions. The nature of the wars and depressions illustrate the complex structure of life and the world. They make necessary greater depths in specialization and a new integration of old and new knowledge in all fields for a better understanding of the problems and the processes of solution. The explanation that war is caused by economic interests is too simple to be true to the complex nature of human beings and human society. The human being carries around as part of his structure and heritage biological, psychological, anthropological, historical, economic, political, philosophical and spiritual equipment. Human society is as complex as the human life implicated in its framework. Wars may come from springs deep in the structure of human beings or deep in the structure of human society or both. It is the

heroic task of biology, psychology, and all the social sciences to try to light up the origins of war and work out its social control and abolition. On the surface it is clear that science and technology have with power engines, farms, factories, stores, banks, ocean lanes, rails, cables and concrete roads, flung across the earth the mechanical framework of a mighty economic structure. A pistol shot in remote Serajevo or a stock market crash in Wall Street causes repercussions around the world. A Slavic student, in killing a German archduke, precipitated national antagonisms, imperial ambitions, economic rivalries, and released human passions and the dynamic energies of the peoples of two hemispheres which caused two million American soldiers to cross an ocean and left ten million dead on the battlefields of three continents. Press a trigger in a village or press a button in an office and you may release pent-up forces that involve the nations and civilization. This interdependent world economic structure has thrust through the national boundaries which would hedge it about. We should, out of regard for the values of nationality, not set nationalism over against mankind but rather work through the nations and all available international organizations for the preservation of the nations and the salvation of the human race. The social scientist is up against an almost impenetrable jungle in many regions of knowledge. He finds himself on the fringe of the wilderness in an internationally lawless world. From the pure research in colleges and universities have come the scientific findings and ideas which became the technological basis of modern civilization. From the colleges and universities must come the findings and thinking which will become the basis for a more intelligent understanding, guidance, and control of the processes out of which come wars and depressions.

b. Research, Integrated Thinking, and the Depression

Research and integrated thinking are desperately needed now to be brought to bear on the great depression. The rhythm of life and business, the high and low swing of the business cycle, unregulated over-production, the hangover of

handicraft ideas with their controls in the age of the power engine, the dislocation of agriculture and the sickness of the coal and cotton industries, the placing of pecuniary considerations above the industrial and the industrial above the human and spiritual, destructive competition, prohibitive tariffs, the breakdown in the system and ethics of distribution and consumption, ultra-nationalistic politics in an interdependent economic world, the great fear and insecurity of the people, armaments, reparations and international debts, unemployment, hunger amid plenty, the misery and despair of the millions everywhere demand the most realistic consideration and high thinking of business men, statesmen, and scholars in the universities. Nothing less than an international enlistment of the most specially and liberally equipped minds and the most spiritually resourced personalities is needed against the darkness of this hour.

The colleges and the universities stand strategic at the crossroads of a recurring transition in the history of modern times. They have, to our tragic cost, equipped us with only fragmentary views of human beings and human society. The universities are often slow to meet the needs of the age. In the transition from mediaeval to modern times, with its focus of forces involving the disintegration of the feudal order, the commercial revolution, and the religious revolt, the universities tardily admitted to curricular equality the revived ancient learning which was the intellectual ferment of it all. Close to the beginning of the last century the western world stood in the presence of the steam power revolution. The universities were slow to give cultural equality to the new sciences which, in their own laboratories, were to rediscover and conquer the earth, and refound the technological basis of modern society. Modern democracies stand face to face today with communist and fascist dictatorships. The people of the western world, already in the midst of the social challenge of the electrical and gas power revolutions, find themselves overwhelmed with three other great influences: the consequences of the World War, the world moral confusion, and the world economic depression. The stakes are too great, and catas-

trophic developments are too swift for the universities to stand aside or wait upon tradition for their course or vested interests for their cue. In the face of revolutions, dictatorships, and catastrophe, America, through the schools, colleges and universities, must learn to be true to her inner Americanism of freedom of the mind and equality of opportunity for all people.

What the classics meant intellectually in Renaissance times, and what the natural sciences have meant technologically in the industrial age, suggest something of what the social sciences in the twentieth century can mean humanly in the making of a nobler America and more beautiful world in which men and women can do their day's work and dream dreams for their children. Scholars of the first rank in all nations enlisted in high research can lay out the groundwork for the better cooperation of the nations in international diplomacy, disarmament, finance, commerce, culture, in scientific and social mastery, and catch the imagination and heroism of youth in the high adventures of the human spirit for the saving of the nations and the succor of the peoples of the earth who ask for the chance to earn their daily bread.

THE UNIVERSITY AND THE PEOPLE

1. THE EXTENSION DIVISION

It is the function of the state university not only to find its bits of truth and teach the truth gathered from scholars everywhere, but to carry the truth to the people that they may take it into their lives and help to make it prevail in the world of affairs. It is the ideal of the University Extension Division to make the resources of the universities, the discoveries of science, and the finding of the social scientists available for the people of the commonwealth. The members of the general faculty, the special faculty, the special library, special lectures, courses in class and by correspondence, bureaus, institutes, inter-scholastic activities involving athletics, debates, classics, plays and playwriting, and in an independent and far-reaching way the general library and the Library School all serve to carry or send the university to the people. The public schools,

teachers, men's civic clubs, professional associations, women's clubs and associations, and people in towns, on farms, and in remote mountain caves, all tap the life that is here. The universities should set their faces like flint against what is clearly trivial, merely current, or only novel. Yet the American state university should not, from a fear to assert its own soul against what in its life would be a new Toryism of exclusive culture, high tuition, and intellectual stratification, be misled into a mere imitation of European traditions and institutions. The state university comes from the people and should go out to the people. The intellectual life of the university should be quickened by contact and interchange with the people. They have a common destiny in the adventure of building a better state. The state university cannot, as the university of the people, be an institution of a class, whether based on section, blood, money, creed or intellectual background. Deep injustice anywhere in the commonwealth leaves its psychic scars upon university life; the well-being of the people makes more radiant the life of the state university. The state university can never lose the common touch without treason to its own nature and without drying up the springs from which flow the living waters of its own life. The state university is the university of all the people. It takes no side, but democracy and justice are on the side where it belongs. The university is organic with the life of the people and the currents of its life would flow back into the life of the people with transforming excellence and creative power. There should be no lowering of standards in the extension process. Its standards and opportunities shall be second to none and open to all to the end that we build a commonwealth in which shall be preserved democracy without vulgarity and excellence without arrogance.

2. THE SCHOOLS OF THE PEOPLE

The public schools are now and will increasingly be the community center of university extension and adult education. The university will not only extend and share its life with the public schools and the people but university men,

as citizens, if true to the traditions of this university made by men who can fight no more, Murphey, Yancey, Wiley, Vance, Alderman, McIver, and Aycock, will fight for the schools of the people.

The university is resourced in the public schools and the public schools are resourced in the university. They go up or down together. Now is the time in the midst of depression, unemployment, and educational defeatism for the Extension Division and the public schools to envisage and lay out the plans for a future all-inclusive educational program in the communities for the continuous education of all the people as a way to use wisely the advancing leisure, to substitute cultural content for merely mechanical contacts, natural creative play for artificial and empty excitement, and to lay the intellectual groundwork for a more general and intelligent understanding of and participation in the affairs of the world and its opportunities for a larger mastery of human destiny. Land to the west for more than two hundred years helped to keep open and free our American life. The land is closed but the schools are open and will help to make us free. Along the converging roads of the public schools, adult education, and university excellence, lies one hope of our American democracy struggling for a higher mastery. We cannot, in these critical times, which test in our budgets what we really believe in, cut the schools and pinch our way out. With the inclusive and continuous education of all our people we must socially invest, we must build, we must create our way out from depression into a higher prosperity and from poverty into a nobler power.

THE FREEDOM OF THE UNIVERSITY

Along with culture and democracy must go freedom. Without freedom there can be neither true culture nor real democracy. Without freedom there can be no university. Freedom in a university runs a various course and has a wide meaning. It means the freedom of students with their growing sense of responsibility and student citizenship to govern themselves in campus affairs, and the right of lawful assembly and free

discussions by any students of any issues and views whatever. This campus freedom carries with it a high moral responsibility. For the faculty, freedom means the right of the faculty to control the curriculum, scholastic standards, and especially matters pertaining to intellectual excellence; to teach and speak freely, not as propagandists, but as scholars and seekers for the truth with a clear sense of responsibility for the truth and a deep sense of the teacher's part in the development of the whole youthful personality; to organize their own independent association for discussion and statement of views, and as a basic part of the university's life help shape university policies by votes, representation, advice, and, may we hope, a larger sharing in the life of the people of the state. For the administrative head freedom means to take full responsibility in his own sphere and make decisions in the long run view of all the circumstances, to express views, without illusion as to their influence but with some sense of fairness, humility, and tolerance, on those issues that concern the whole people, asking no quarter and fearing no special interest. Freedom of the trustees means the freedom to receive endowments for this meagerly endowed university from any honest sources without fear or favor or strings attached beyond an honorable responsibility, and the freedom to make the institution within the limits of their responsibility to the people and its own high nature an autonomous institution in its administration, faculty, standards, admissions, excellence, and the budget which is basic to them all.

Freedom of the university means the freedom to study not only the biological implications of the physical structure of a fish but also the human implications of the economic structure of society. It means freedom from the prejudices of section, race, or creed; it means a free compassion of her sons for all people in need of justice and brotherhood. It means the freedom of the liberated spirit to understand sympathetically those who misunderstand freedom and would strike it down. It means the freedom for consideration of the plight of unorganized and inarticulate peoples in an unorganized world in which powerful combinations and high pressure lob-

bies work their special will on the general life. In the university should be found the free voice not only for the unvoiced millions but also for the unpopular and even the hated minorities. Its platform should never be an agency of partisan propaganda but should ever be a fair forum of free opinion. Freedom should never mean a loss of the sense of lawful and moral responsibility to the trustees and the people from whom the university came and to whom her life returns manifold.

But this freedom of the university should not be mistaken for approval of those who are merely sophisticated or who superficially exploit either the passing currents or great human causes or who fundamentally debase the deep human passions and poison the springs from which flow the waters of life. Such an abuse of freedom has the scorn of scholars whose intellectual integrity and wholesome life are a source of freedom. True freedom of self-expression is not the sort that leads either to self-exploitation or to self-exhaustion but rather leads to the self-realization of the whole personality for the good life. No abuse of freedom should cause us to strike down freedom of speech or publication, the fresh resources of a free religion and a free state.

Finally freedom of the university means freedom of the scholar to find and report the truth honestly without interference by the university, the state, or any interests whatever. If a scholar be enlisted by the state for research on a mooted issue, though such scholarly and independent report may be imputed to the university as an institution by powerful lobbies opposed to the report, the university will stand by the right of the state to enlist the scholar and the freedom of the scholar to make the report, whatever be the consequences. The real destruction of the university would come from the university administration's interference, or any other interference, with the report. Without such freedom of research we would have no university and no democracy.

These conceptions of the various forms of the freedom of the university are stated for the sake of fairness. The only recourse for changing such conceptions is to change the uni-

versity administration. This is not said defiantly but in all friendliness and simply as a matter of openness and clearness. It is said with no personal concern, for it is our faith that whatever the administration, the freedom of the university, gathering momentum across a century, and the democracy of the people, sometimes sleeping but never dead, will rise in majesty to reassert the intellectual integrity and the moral autonomy of the University of North Carolina.

This integrity, democracy, and freedom of the university comes out of its own nature. The idea and structure of the university evolve through the centuries under the impact of social needs and youthful hopes. The college and the campus, the professional schools, the graduate school, the library and laboratories, playhouse and music hall, the institute of research and the press, the library school and the democratic extension of the university's life throughout the commonwealth, are all gradually and organically being integrated into the idea and structure of this university of the people. In such a free university we will learn to see in every significant situation, personal, local, national, or international, the composing elements, whether geographic, biological, psychological, historical, economic, social, political, intellectual, or spiritual, or all. This organic university, with its humanities, natural sciences and social sciences, has the rootage of its growth in the experience of the race, the aspirations of the human personality, and the needs of a changing age. Out of the very organic structure and quality of the university issue its democracy and its freedom.

CONCLUSION

ROLL CALL OF PRESIDENTS AND MUSTER OF SONS

Out of the past come figures, living and dead, to stand by us in this inaugural hour in the woods where Davie, the founder, stood under the poplar and raised the standard of a people's hope. The lives of the presidents reassure us all with their spiritual presence and power: Caldwell, the first president, in whose administration for the first time in America a modern language was given curricular equality with an an-

cient language and the first observatory was established in an American college and whose communicated social passion sent Murphey to lay the foundation of the state's public schools, and Morehead to build railways to bind the East and West in bonds of iron; Swain, in whose time the university advanced to a high leadership in the South, and who, in the closing war days and reconstruction, was a conciliatory spirit in an age of hate; Battle, dauntless father of the reopening of the university, deviser of a separate group of graduate courses in the curriculum fifty years ago, and founder of the first university summer school in America, whose gay kindliness will ever pervade this place and whose noble spirit still walks in these woods; Winston, lying stricken in this village today, a casualty of the life militant, champion of religious freedom and educational democracy who synthesized the classical and the scientific, the cultural and vocational in his own varied and brilliant life; Alderman, lately and deeply lamented, who in his last days with something of a premonition of the end returned in filial memories to alma mater, her sons, and her scenes where his eloquence long stirred the creative imagination of the people of a commonwealth and caught the ear of the people of a nation; Venable with his passion for soundness of scholarship and integrity of life, the symbol of the group of scientific scholars whose research and teaching won recognition among the scholars of the world, with us still in modest retirement these later years gathering flowers from his garden for his friends in the village where he once gathered truth from test tubes for all mankind; Graham, major prophet of university extension and interpreter of culture and democracy to the people, his name memorialized in a students' building on the campus whose ideals he helped to create and whose life he passionately extended all over the state as he identified a democratic state university with the life of the people whose sustaining power has returned a hundredfold since his going; and Chase, under whose leadership came the greatest material expansion and intellectual advance, whose administration gathered up the momentum and values of the past, added high values of his own, and worked a synthesis

of all, champion of the freedom of scientific inquiry in testing times, genial leader and friend, now President of Illinois but always at home in Chapel Hill. These chieftains and the hosts of her sons always muster in spiritual power in every hour of her need. Into the soul of the place has entered the spirit of an heroic woman, symbol of all mothers and women whose hopes and prayers have wrought mightily under these oaks.

With the university today stand all the state and denominational schools, colleges, and the neighbor university. Not in antagonism but in all friendliness and rivalry in excellence we would work in this region and build here together one of the great intellectual and spiritual centers of the world.

CHAPEL HILL

Here in Chapel Hill among a friendly folk, this old university, the first state university to open its doors, stands on a hill set in the midst of beautiful forests under skies that give their color and their charm to the life of youth gathered here. Traditions grow here with the ivy on the historic buildings and the moss on the ancient oaks. Friendships form here for the human pilgrimage. There is music in the air of the place. To the artist's touch flowers grow beautifully from the soil and plays come simply from the life of the people. Above the traffic of the hour church spires reach toward the life of the spirit. Into this life, with its ideals, failures, and high courage, comes youth with his body and his mind, his hopes and his dreams. Scholars muster here the intellectual and spiritual resources of the race for the development of the whole personality of the poorest boy and would make the University of North Carolina a stronghold of liberal learning with outposts of research along all the frontiers of the world. Great teachers on this hill kindle the fires that burn for him and light up the heavens of the commonwealth with the hopes of light and liberty for all mankind.

FRANK PORTER GRAHAM,
The University of North Carolina.

Credit Hunting Versus Education[1]

IN THE exceedingly well planned program of this forty-fifth annual convention of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States, one word stands out in the subjects which come before us for discussion. It is a word which lies at the very foundation of educational effectiveness, but one whose implications have been overlooked by many responsible for the proper training of those who day by day are taking up the duty of citizenship and of intellectual leadership throughout the country. This word is continuity.

No group can consider it more advantageously than one which like this is made up of representatives of colleges and secondary schools. For if such a group can cultivate a spirit of real solidarity, can resolve itself not into a debating society, committed to narrow views and what might be termed class prejudices, but into a unified force attacking with singleness of purpose intrenched ignorance, mediocrity and smug self-satisfaction, untold good will be accomplished.

Here we are met together to advance the interests of true education through the agency of Secondary Schools and Colleges, and in this enterprise a great factor is the proper transition from school to college. Better methods of college selection and of college entrance must be devised if our efforts are to be crowned with success.

To bring about the desired results certain ideals are essential. We must inspire in youth a vision of education as a continuous and continuing process; must make the transition from school to college a normal and orderly procedure; must insure the college opportunity to all who have the capacity for it and turn aside to more fruitful courses of action those who have not such capacity.

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[1]Address presented at the Annual Convention Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States, Atlantic City, November 27, 1931.

We have made a fetish of our arbitrary divisions in the educational scheme. We refer to our interest in the primary school, the secondary school, and then, groping for a proper term, in higher education or education at the college level. And as we think in these terms we naturally drift into an attitude of time service. We set up a standard of form and not of substance. We adopt the language of the court and sentence our children to so many years of incarceration; we encourage the laborious process of adding credit to credit until in the fulness of years and by the simple process of addition our victim is set free. Little wonder is it that the majority of boys and girls become skilled credit hunters. Natural it is that in the halls of schools and colleges we hear the student proclaim that he got chemistry *off* last year and that he hopes to get English II or French III *off* this year. This conception of school or college as an institution where one's success depends upon getting something off instead of getting something on will persist as long as we think in terms of primary or secondary or college units rather than in terms of preparation for purposeful living. The junior high school movement has had the beneficial result of taking out of our minds the conception of the eighth grade as a jumping off place. Certainly there can be methods devised by which the gap between the high school and the college can be bridged better than at present. Surely we can find the way by which our youth may be brought to see more clearly the unity of human knowledge; the interrelation of eternal truths in whatever field they may chance to be. If we are to be worthy of the name of educators, as against that of mere drill masters, we must, by precept and example, inculcate the basic educational principle of following through. In this endeavor we must compose our petty differences and work in whatever rôle we are cast to play our part to the end that the drama may unfold logically and completely. American education, like the American stage, has suffered from the star system.

It is becoming more and more evident as we gain deeper insight into capacity and character that the limitations of individual students should be considered with the greatest

care and wisdom; that we must develop and apply with increasing skill sound intelligence and aptitude tests. Obviously the saturation point may be reached at the end of the sixth grade or tenth grade or first year of college, as certainly as at the end of the eighth grade or twelfth grade or at the end of the fourth year of college. And whenever and wherever it is reached we must recognize and deal with it to the end that we shall not waste teaching effort, shall not retard the students of real capacity by prodding the exhausted on to an arbitrary finish line which marks the completion of what we call the elementary or secondary or college course.

To accomplish the real purposes of education, there must be a flexibility and at the same time a comprehensiveness of training facilities and of vision noticeably lacking in times past. This is not to say that no great improvement has been made in college entrance technique during the past few years. Thirty-five years ago there were no generally observed standards worthy of the name. A few of the stronger colleges were giving entrance examinations. Many others maintained academies or preparatory departments through which students found their way into college. The selective process went on in the family for the most part. Only the most able young people were given the college opportunity. It had not yet become "the thing to go to college." Had the colleges then been confronted with the heterogeneous group which faces us today, their educational results would not compare favorably with those of the present.

It was about 1895 that four years of secondary school preparation for college entrance began to be insisted upon. Then in 1900 came the organization of the College Entrance Examination Board, which defined the college entrance unit and prepared examinations to determine students' ability to come up to fair standards. The Board since its organization has contributed immeasurably to the clarification of the entrance problem and to the construction of proper selective machinery. Its influence has been felt far beyond the group of colleges which require College Entrance Board Examinations.

On the foundation of the high school certification plan and the College Entrance Board system have grown in recent years many other experiments: the combination of the secondary school credits and entrance examinations; the creation of various intelligence and college aptitude tests and systems of personal interview for the appraisal of personality. Various organizations, such as the New England College Entrance Certificate Board, have contributed to the adoption of better standards. However, much remains to be done. There are still far too many youths in secondary schools and colleges who should not be there, and on the outside a vast number who, if given the opportunity, would take advantage of the best our institutions have to offer and would later make outstanding contributions to society.

Our slowness in attaining satisfactory results is due in part to the fact that secondary schools and colleges are not always in agreement in their definition of college material; of the purpose of the secondary school on the one hand, and the college on the other; and finally as to the purpose of education as a whole.

The lack of unified approach was pointed out by Clyde Furst in a study of college entrance requirements, in which he termed such requirements "the complex result of many factors, intricately related." Among these factors he cited "the belief of schools that they should provide whatever curricula they believe to be the best for their students and that such curricula should admit students to college, the school curricula thus dominating those of the college; the belief of the colleges that they should provide whatever curricula they believe to be the best for their students, fix their entrance requirements accordingly and thus dominate the curricula of the schools; the desire of the schools to be able to send all their students to college, conflicting with the desire to send only those who will do the school most credit; the desire of the colleges at times to secure the largest possible number of students, and the ability of colleges at other times to select from a larger number of applicants than they can accommodate; the desire of all concerned to give each student

every consideration, frequently made ineffective by such great number of students that no one can give them adequate consideration."

A concrete example of the opposing points of view which Dr. Furst so graphically described is found in Headmaster Windor's article on the unintellectual boy which appeared in a recent issue of the *Atlantic Monthly*. "Up to the present moment," he writes, "every secondary school has been the slave of college entrance requirements. Its first and necessary business is to see to it that the school course of each boy meets the specific requirements for admission to the college of his choice and any consideration of real educational values can have no weight whatever as against that necessity. The school which should today try to declare its independence and adopt the curriculum best designed in its opinion to fit its students both for life and for further study would find that at graduation its students would be barred by this technicality or that from almost every worth while college." He also refers to those who drift perforce to cramming and tutoring schools so that they may be "shoe-horned into college."

Recently there have been evidences of a greater desire on the part of secondary school and college leaders to cooperate, but there is still a general feeling that better understanding than that which now exists is essential to the end that entirely reasonable and satisfactory standards may be created. For example, the head of a leading private secondary school of the experimental type recently wrote me thus:

"If schools and colleges could understand each other better perhaps our ideal high school graduate and your ideal college freshman would have a degree of identity not now possessed by pupils leaving high school and by pupils entering college. My ideal high school graduate is one who has elected to investigate on his own initiative under the guidance of the faculty some field of knowledge with a degree of thoroughness not possible under the present system of college entrance requirements; he has done satisfactory work in English and one other language; he possesses a high degree of personal integrity and has some maturity in the management of his life. I do not like to judge him too severely by school

marks, intelligence tests, the particular courses which he has completed and the like."

The headmaster of one of the outstanding boys' schools in the East contributes this:

"I am not opposed to College Board examinations for I believe that thus far they are the best test for entrance to college that we have, but I do not believe, by any means, that this system will continue without many modifications and a greater opportunity for a more liberal curriculum in the secondary school.

"I am fully aware that we must have certain standards for admission to college. An ideal way would be to take on the headmaster's recommendation those boys on whom he would place his unqualified seal of approval. However, such a system would have many weaknesses, chief among which would be the temptation, by reason of outside pressure, to certify to a boy on the chance that he might be able to carry on. Then, again, no two schools have identical standards."

A third point of view is expressed by the principal of a representative high school:

"The fifteen units is out of date. This whole system of units and counts from preparatory school through the university I consider a very vicious element in our educational system.

"It is folly to express foreign language ability in terms of years of study. We have learned much in the art of examining in the past ten years. It is possible now to measure reading ability, and the foreign language requirement should be stated in terms of power rather than in terms of years of attendance in class.

"The range of abilities of pupils now in public high schools is so wide as to make years of attendance in class as a measure of achievement and graduation as a stamp of scholarship absolutely meaningless. We must re-define the whole business of certification whether for graduation from high school, admission to professions or admission to higher institutions of learning.

"We now have pupils ranging in ability practically from near morons to near geniuses and the whole business of estimating progress in terms of clock hours is out of date. It results often in compelling able students to sit around idle waiting for others to catch up."

From the college standpoint comes a statement of the Admissions Committee Chairman in a Liberal Arts College. He feels, after administering various entrance systems for twenty years, that about the only essential requirement is that a student should have the ability to read. By this he means the ability to read a piece of English poetry correctly and rapidly and then tell the idea which the author is trying to convey. If the student is headed for an engineering course then this chairman would require a reasonable familiarity with the elementary processes of algebra and plane geometry. Besides ability to read and to tell what he has read, he concludes, "The other sine qua non to every student is a high intellectual purpose in coming to college."

These statements all show the stirring of a desire for a searching inquiry into the effectiveness of existing entrance requirements, an earnest wish to break away from artificial and indefensible devices and to think of the student's welfare rather than the prerogatives of an institution.

Such impulses are not evident among individuals in education alone. They are being taken cognizance of by influential organizations which are devoting much time and thought to the entire problem or some phase of it. According to a recent announcement the College Entrance Examination Board intends to establish a series of validating examinations. These would not take the place of the present subject examinations and may be used in institutions which supplement their system of admission by school certificates with certain college board examinations given to those candidates who cannot qualify otherwise. It is planned to give these validating examinations in mathematics, English and modern languages. The examinations would not be given in June, as are the established Board Examinations, but shortly after the Christmas holidays. This would make it possible for the student to have his college admission arranged before commencement. It would also enable those colleges which section their classes to place the student intelligently.

The Educational Records Bureau, with a membership of some two hundred schools and a Board of Directors of mem-

bers representing equally colleges, independent schools and public high schools, is doing a constructive piece of work in securing and accumulating accurate and comparable measurements of the abilities of students! In an official announcement we read that the "Educational Records Bureau is committed to the belief that teachers and counsellors must learn the student before they can teach him well or guide him wisely. Reliable measures of scholastic aptitude and reliable measures of achievement are indispensable if the student is to be directed into those fields of educational or vocational endeavor for which he is best adapted. The college student does not suddenly become college material at graduation from preparatory school. If a boy is ever a college type of mind he is such from birth, and the differential needs of college youths at the age of six or twelve are as great as, if not greater than, they are at the age of sixteen or twenty. An earlier identification of college students will be a boon to student, parent, preparatory school and college alike. The cumulative records of the Bureau will be instrumental in such identification."

The cooperative test service under the auspices of the American Council on Education is experimenting in a field of achievement tests. This enterprise is being developed in a thoroughly scientific manner and the results of nation wide sophomore tests to be given in the spring of 1932 will doubtless throw much light upon a factor large in the consideration of a youth's educational career.

Writing in the *Journal of Higher Education*, Dean McConn says:

"The purpose of the Cooperative Test Service is definite and specific, namely, to provide a continuing supply of uniform, comparable and valid achievement tests in those subjects regularly taught in the early college years and generally in the late high-school years; such a continuing supply of valid tests being conceived as absolutely essential for any sound development of personal service for many phases of educational research and for any clear sighted or sure footed reform of high school or collegiate administration

and curriculums. We can never know definitely either what students ought to do or what we are doing to students until we have an adequate supply of objective measures for individuals and for groups."

Particularly notable is the so-called Pennsylvania Study carried on under the direction of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in cooperation with the joint Commission of the Association of Pennsylvania College Presidents and the State Department of Public Instruction. So much has been said at the sessions of this Association concerning the progress of this study that it is unnecessary to go into details concerning it here. Two points, however, should be stressed. First, that the study was undertaken at the joint request of the colleges on the one hand and the Public School System of Pennsylvania on the other. This in itself was a long step toward the ideal of continuity.

The second point to be noted is the interest which has been paid to the student's life history. Nothing could better illustrate the essential value of continuity in the educational process than do the findings of those who are conducting the study. Dr. Learned well says:

"In a sound relation of school and college respecting the education of a human mind, the first requisite, in my judgment, is the ability and the disposition on the part of the college to read and interpret a comprehensive and truthful record of the performance of that mind in its earlier stages. Such records do not now exist except as we are beginning to prove them in our own Pennsylvania inquiry, but if the college can be made to see their importance and demand them from schools, their development will be greatly hastened, much to the advantage of the schools themselves. In the second place, I believe that we should stop altogether the counting of these fictitious units and that the college should base its admission of a pupil wholly on a consideration of his merits as an individual likely to profit by what the college has to offer."

We who are engaged in college work in Pennsylvania look forward with much hope to the time when candidates for admission to our freshman class will come to us with the accurate story of their scholastic, social and other characteris-

tics clearly traced for a period of several years on the graphic cumulative record card developed by the American Council and by those in charge of the Pennsylvania study.

An experiment which should be watched with keen interest is one launched this year in connection with the Pennsylvania study. In at least three high schools groups of students with minds of real capacity are segregated in a curriculum devised for their special needs, a curriculum emphasizing continuity, which, in other words, follows through more than does the typical secondary school curriculum. These students will not be able to present to the colleges the conventional group of credits, but will in all probability be stimulated to independent thinking much more than fellows under the old curriculum. The colleges are manifesting their willingness to accept students who under this new curriculum do creditable work.

This is not the place nor is it necessary to enumerate all the activities being carried on by those who are interested in building better educational standards, particularly those having to do with the relations of so-called secondary and higher education.

I have referred to a few and have also quoted the views of several school and college leaders in order to demonstrate that the great swing of the best educational opinion is in the direction of continuity; of personal appraisal as against institutional accrediting; that there is a growing realization that in order to meet the needs of a student at a particular time we must be in possession of accurate knowledge as to his growth over a period of several years. We have learned by the trial and error method the folly of the quantity production system in the training of human beings. We have learned that there is no such thing as effective mass education. We are slowly learning that in breaking down the artificial barriers which we have erected between elementary and secondary, and more particularly between secondary and college systems, we are doing much for education.

And it was in the interest of securing a unified approach to the subject of college entrance, of emphasizing the es-

sential element of continuity, that I made a suggestion to this Association at its meeting last year.

My recommendation was that the Federal Commission of Education be requested to appoint a commission, made up of representative high school principals and teachers, headmasters and masters of independent schools, faculty members and administrative officers of colleges and universities, to survey the entire field of the relationship of schools and colleges, particularly as it applies to preparation for college and college entrance. Such a commission should be given all the time necessary to make an exhaustive survey and ultimately to present findings and recommendations. I suggested that the men and women constituting this commission be relieved of their regular duties for six months or a year in order that their entire thought might be given to this important consideration. The thought behind these recommendations was that the approach to the question which we now have is made for the most part either from the secondary school standpoint or the high school standpoint. Each is inclined to criticize the other. It seems to me that, by getting together and seeing the problem in the large, much good could be accomplished. Obviously no set system of entrance applicable to all institutions should be worked out. Perhaps we have too little variation as it is. Certainly one can defend the assertion that although there are enough institutions of higher learning in the United States today, there are not enough kinds of institutions. The purpose of the commission would not be to standardize but to clarify.

Someone has raised the question as to the necessity of such a commission as I advocate, pointing out the activities in connection with the Pennsylvania Study; the Cooperative Test Service and the rest. But would not a group of school and college leaders working together evaluate these several enterprises, emphasize the most valuable feature of each, and minimize the danger of duplication of effort. Certainly the college faculties would welcome a statement of the findings of such a commission because it would put them further on the way toward an intelligent comprehension of the whole

matter than any report which is now available. Under ordinary conditions the evolution would be slow. With a commission having the prestige which would come from its national character, the transition from the faulty to the desirable and logical methods of college admission would be greatly accelerated. This is not a theoretical situation; it is a thoroughly human one—one in which the interested parties have held each other at arm's length, as Dr. Ben Wood has rightly said, "the only common ground on which the high schools and colleges have stood is the fictitious system of credits and units which provides so much non-educational work for registrars and admission officers; and the experience of two decades has shown that the common ground furnished by credit units has not been sufficiently substantial to be made the foundation of mutually satisfactory and constructive cooperation between secondary and higher institutions."

I submit that it is high time that we substitute cooperation for criticism, education for credits, student welfare for institutional pomposity. I submit that such substitution should be nation wide and that the effort for it be given the sanction and the encouragement of the Federal Office of Education.

WILLIAM MATHER LEWIS,
Lafayette College.

The Junior Year Abroad

WE STORE the pigeonholes of our brains with facts and theories; but without a sense of relation and proportion such knowledge is of comparatively little value. Having established a reasonable perspective toward the facts and theories we are what may be called "educated." Most of our progress up to this point in our study is based on hearsay evidence. In order to convince ourselves practically and drive home our conclusions we should, to the greatest degree possible, be "on the spot." We should not study entirely through a spy-glass—we should travel and see the world for ourselves at short range.

If this thought is accepted, we must next agree as to the best age for travel. Not too early in life, because we haven't accumulated the facts to check up; not too late in life, because we don't have the opportunity to digest and pass on our experiences to others.

On approaching manhood, after a college course, most of us must begin the struggle for place—preparation for married life and the support of a family—the accumulation of a competence, in order to get outside the hard walls of competition and be able to indulge our higher tastes. Few, after graduating from college, are in a position to take a year off for study in foreign countries.

The idea occurred to me in 1922 that the junior year of the college course could best be spent in study and travel abroad. Our leading educators approved this. The American Council on Education, after full consideration by its Executive Committee, heartily endorsed it. After a close cooperation between European universities and ours, it was arranged that certificates of study could be exchanged and the student returned to his home college to begin the senior year with his former classmates and to graduate with them. Thus the benefits of the year abroad could be secured by the student without any loss of time.

This plan has been carried out with greater and greater success for the past eight years. Under it, there are several hundred juniors abroad now. They are in France, England, Germany, Spain, Italy and elsewhere. The results reported are of the most satisfactory nature. They gain a knowledge of local conditions, travel between seasons and get the desired perspective. Never again are they the narrow-minded Americans they were. They realize our merits and our shortcomings by actual comparison. Many students, with the consent and cooperation of their college authorities, go "on their own." There are some scholarships at $1,000 a year, more at $300, which are competed for by sophomores in all our colleges and universities. The winners have come from Yale, Harvard, Dartmouth, Princeton, Amherst, Williams, C. C. N. Y., Cornell, N. Y. U., Swarthmore, Vassar, Smith, Delaware and other state universities. Letters coming regularly from these students bring the most enthusiastic and satisfactory reports. They show appreciation of the opportunities offered and often portray an entire revision and broadening of the student's life program. Quotations from some of these letters may be interesting.

One young man who studied during his year abroad at the University of Copenhagen wrote us of his experiences as follows:

To me this junior year abroad has been of extreme value. Not only has it made possible my studying physics under the famous Danish physicist, Professor Niels Bohr, my childhood idol, but it has also given me a broad insight of a new type of life that I previously knew so little about.

Another, from the University of Berlin:

During the year, I developed a fair understanding of European manners and people, and a great admiration for the progress the German nation has made in recovering its former position in world affairs. . . . In attempting to understand a nation, nothing is so helpful as an understanding and knowledge of their literature and literary traditions, and I count my appreciation of German literature as one of my most valuable acquisitions in the past year.

From the University of Madrid:

My scholarship has given me the opportunity, and the necessary prestige, to meet men like Primo de Rivera; to have access to the greatest of the libraries of Europe; and to consult men like the Duke of Alba, Miguel Unamuno, and Maranon and Pittaluga. . . . I have found things in Europe I had never dreamed of in America—the poverty, the filthiness, and the slavery of the peasantry; but Europe has also the song of the laborer, and the favou-vivre of the aristocrat.

And from a young lady at the Sorbonne, in Paris:

I think that foreign educational methods are quite superior to ours; lecture courses keep up the students' interest much better, and one learns more through them than through the system of recitation hours which we have in America, and which now seems to be somewhat juvenile. . . . Four successive years in an American college, especially one that is in a small town, tends to give the student a narrow viewpoint.

A young lady at the London School of Economics wrote:

I feel very keenly the value of contacts between the youth of various countries. And I know there is immense advantage in having such an international experience while one is still in the process of forming one's ideas and character, and choosing one's way of life. I have a young brother and am delighted to say that my family have become so convinced of the value of my experience that they have arranged for him to study next year at the International School in Geneva. I want to repeat to you what I mentioned in my last report—that I am genuinely anxious to help future scholarship holders, and especially foreigners in the United States, in any way I can.

These young men and young women are worthy missionaries of good will between our country and Europe—they make a much better impression than the average tourist and bring back new ideas that tend to diminish prejudice and lead to a better understanding of our European neighbors.

In the interest of international peace this work might well be developed into a much greater movement.

MARCUS M. MARKS,
New York City.

Pending Federal Legislation

THE Seventy-second Congress has already witnessed a deluge of proposed legislation. Before the Christmas recess 6,659 bills had been introduced in the House and 2,419 in the Senate. The number of private relief and pension bills has been very large. These and local bills affecting the District of Columbia, which might well be dealt with administratively under general laws, continue to clog the machinery of our chief deliberative assembly.

Bills of special interest to education include the following:

S. 4. RADIO

Introduced by Mr. Fess; read twice and referred to the Committee on Interstate Commerce.

Provides for the reservation of 15 per cent of radio broadcasting facilities for educational broadcasting exclusively and for allocation to educational agencies of the Federal or State governments and to educational institutions chartered by the United States or by the respective States or Territories.

This is the Bill sponsored by the National Committee on Education by Radio.

S. 136. CRIPPLED CHILDREN

Introduced by Mr. Hatfield; read twice and referred to the Committee on Education and Labor.

Provides for the cooperation by the Federal Board for Vocational Education with the several States in the care, treatment, education, vocational guidance, and placement and physical rehabilitation of crippled children. Appropriating $2,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1932, $3,000,000 for 1933, $4,000,000 for 1934, $5,000,000 for 1935, to be apportioned among the several States in the proportion that their population bears to the total population of the United States, provided an equal sum has been appropriated for that year by the Legislature of the State, or provided by municipal or private contributions within the State. Appropriations shall be available for providing clinics, services of nurses and surgeons, hospitalization, care and treatment in convalescence, and reconstruction of homes. Institutions must meet the standards set by the Surgeon General of the U. S. Public Health Service, and must be certified

by the Federal Board for Vocational Education that they have met these standards. Five per cent of the amounts appropriated will be retained by the Federal Board for administration expenses. Each State agency cooperating with the Federal Board shall make such reports as the Federal Board may require. The Federal Board may revoke the existing certificate whenever it determines that the agency in a State has not appropriately expended the monies paid to it.

S. 176. COPYRIGHT

Introduced by Mr. Hebert; read twice and referred to the Committee on Patents.

Same as H. R. 139, the Vestal Bill.

S. 355. CHICAGO FAIR

Introduced by Mr. Glenn; read twice and referred to the Committee on Commerce.

Provides for the participation of the United States in a Century of Progress, the Chicago World's Fair Centennial Celebration, to be held in Chicago in 1933, by the creation of a Commission composed of the Secretary of State, the Secretary of Agriculture, and the Secretary of Commerce; by the appointment by the President of a Commissioner at a salary of $10,000; by the appropriation of $1,725,000 of which not more than $550,000 may be expended for buildings; and for the loan of certain government property as exhibits.

S. 481. RADIO

Introduced by Mr. White; read twice and referred to the Committee on Interstate Commerce.

Amends the Radio Act in the matter of the classification of zones, excluding non-continental territories and possessions. Provides for the annual election of a chairman of the Commission and for a vice-chairman. Provides for a public hearing before modification and change of licenses. Gives authority to require the painting and illumination of radio towers when a menace to air navigation. Gives control to the Federal Radio Commission of transmission by wire of any program originating in the United States for use of radio broadcast stations in a foreign country. Provides for the modification and suspension of licenses as well as for revocation. Provides rules and procedures before the Radio Commission and the courts.

S. 502. PANHANDLE AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE

Introduced by Mr. Thomas; read twice and referred to the Committee on Agriculture and Forestry.

Authorizes the appropriation of $50,000 to enable the Secretary of Agriculture to cooperate with the experiment station at Panhandle Agricultural and Mechanical College located at Goodwell, Oklahoma, in making investigations and experiments.

S. 689. NATIONAL ARCHIVES

Introduced by Mr. Smoot; read twice and referred to the Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds.

Provides for the creation of an establishment to be known as the National Archives, with an officer known as the Archivist, at a salary of $10,000, appointed by the President with the advice and consent of the Senate; a National Archives Council composed of the Chairman of the Public Buildings Commission, Chairman of the Senate Committee on the Library, Director of Public Buildings and Public Parks, one of the Secretaries to the President, the Librarian of Congress, and the Archivist; also for an advisory committee consisting of one representative to be designated by the head of each of the departments, to which may be added from time to time one representative from such other governmental agencies not under any executive department as may be approved by the National Archives Council; also a Commission on National Historical Publications, consisting of the Archivist as Chairman, the Historical Advisor of the Department of State, the Chief of the Historical Division of the War Department General Staff, the Superintendent of Naval Records in the Navy Department, the Chief of the Division of Manuscripts in the Library of Congress, and two members of the American Historical Association appointed from among those persons who are or have been members of the executive council of the said association by the President thereof. The Archivist shall have immediate custody and control of the National Archives Building and authority, with the approval of the Council, to make regulations for the arrangement, custody, use and withdrawal of material. Within six months after building is completed files approved by the National Archives Council covering a period to and including 1860 shall be transferred to the building, and at the end of five years files for another five-year period.

S. 692. NATIONAL ARCHIVES

Introduced by Mr. Smoot; read twice and referred to the Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds.

Provides for the creation of an establishment to be known as the National Archives.

Differs from S. 689 in the constitution of membership of the National Archives Council and in the membershp of the Commission on National Historical Publications. Provides that the Council shall be composed of two members of the Public Buildings Commission and its executive officer, Chairman of the Senate Committee on the Library, the Chairman of the House Committee on the Library, the Librarian of Congress and the Archivist, together with additional members to be designated (1) by the head of each executive department or independent establishment that shall have deposited in the Archives Building from its files an amount of material occupying in excess of 50,000 cubic feet. Provides that the Commission on National Historical Publications shall consist of the Librarian as Chairman, the Archivist as Secretary, the Chief of Publications of the Department of State, the Chief of the Historical Section of the War Department General Staff, the Superintendent of Naval Records in the Navy Department, and two members of the American Historical Association appointed as in S. 689.

S. 751. NATURALIZATION

Introduced by Mr. McNary; read twice and referred to the Committee on Immigration.

Provides that the Secretary of Labor obtain from the copyright owner at a cost not in excess of $50,000, a license to print sufficient copies of the patriotic poster entitled "Look the Truth in the Face" prepared by the late Edward Grothjan, to permit of the distribution of one copy of such poster to each person hereafter admitted to citizenship under the naturalization laws, together with the appropriation of sums necessary for the purpose.

S. 761. ENGINEERING EXPERIMENT STATIONS

Introduced by Mr. McNary; read twice and referred to the Committee on Agriculture and Forestry.

Provides for Federal grants to aid in the maintenance of engineering experiment stations in connection with land grant colleges to each State of $10,000 for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1931, $15,000 for 1932, $20,000 for 1933, $25,000 for each fiscal year thereafter, wherever a State shall have made $3 available for like periods and purposes for each dollar to be paid by the Federal Gov-

ernment, under such rules and regulations as may be made by the Secretary of Agriculture with the cooperation of the Secretary of Commerce. It shall be the duty of said engineering experiment stations to correlate their investigations and researches provided for herein, avoiding unnecessary duplication, and to cooperate with the various departments and agencies of the Federal Government engaged in engineering work. Such correlation and cooperation are hereby authorized and directed and shall be promoted and required by the Secretary of Agriculture in researches related to agriculture, and by the Secretary of Commerce in other researches. Bulletins, reports and annual reports of said stations shall be transmitted in the mails of the United States free of charge, under such regulations as the Postmaster General will prescribe. For the maintenance of, supervision over the work, and expenditures of the said engineering experiment stations, coordination of their efforts, and the general promotion of the purposes of this Act by the Secretary of Agriculture, there is hereby authorized the sum of $20,000 per year.

S. 764. FEDERAL AID

Introduced by Mr. McNary; read twice and referred to the Committee on Agriculture and Forestry.

Provides for the increase from 25 per cent to 50 per cent of the proportion of the annual receipts from national forests to be paid to the States for the benefit of the public schools and public roads.

S. 994. NATIONAL BOARD OF PAINTING

Introduced by Mr. Tydings; read twice and referred to the Committee on the Library.

Provides for a National Board of Painting and Sculpture of not less than three nor more than five members to be appointed by the President, no person to serve for more than two consecutive years, and for a prize competition in the District of Columbia of works by living citizens of the United States, with three prizes in painting and three in sculpture of $10,000, $5,000, and $2,500, respectively.

S. 1035. COPYRIGHT

Introduced by Mr. Tydings, by request; read twice and referred to the Committee on Patents.

A bill to amend the copyright law, providing that a royalty once paid on articles or devices reproducing thoughts or music shall free the articles or devices from

further contribution to the copyright owner, except in case of performance for profit. Reproduction on a coin operating machine shall not be deemed a public performance for profit unless a fee is charged for admission.

S. 1037. RADIO

Introduced by Mr. Dill; read twice and referred to the Committee on Interstate Commerce.

A bill to amend the Radio Act of 1927. The Radio Inspection Service, now maintained by the Department of Commerce, would be transferred to the Federal Radio Commission. (S. Rept. No. 23.)

Status: Reported by Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce, December 21, 1931.

S. 1200. NATIONAL MUSEUM OF ENGINEERING

Introduced by Mr. Copeland; read twice and referred to the Committee on Education and Labor.

Provides for the establishment of a Commission on a National Museum of Engineering and Industry to be composed of nine persons appointed by the President as follows: an engineer, an industrial chemist, a manufacturer, three persons experienced in transportation by land, water, and air, respectively; an educator, a representative of labor, and a museum expert. Appropriating $75,000 for the purposes of the Commission.

Identical with H. J. Res. 40.

S. 1204. PASSPORT FEES

Introduced by Mr. Copeland; read twice and referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations.

Provides for the reduction of passport fees from $10 to $5, and for the extension of passports for a period not to exceed six years.

S. 1221. UNIVERSAL EDUCATION

Introduced by Mr. Keyes, by request; read twice and referred to the Committee on Education and Labor.

Provides for the creation of a Commission to extend in cooperation with other nations education to all mankind. Commission to consist of the U. S. Commissioner of Education and two other persons appointed by the President, and appropriating $10,000,000 for the purposes of the Act. As the initial program subject to revision is proposed "the removal of illiteracy from all mankind, instruction in the applications of science and mechanics to the work of the world, and the physical welfare of mankind or world health, international or world ethics, promotive of just and humane government the world over."

S. 1590. EASTERN NEW MEXICO NORMAL SCHOOL

Introduced by Mr. Bratton; read twice and referred to the Committee on Public Lands and Surveys.

Granting to the State of New Mexico 76,667 acres of public lands of the United States in New Mexico for the use and benefit of the Eastern New Mexico Normal School at Portales. Subject to the same terms and conditions as are imposed upon the grants made by the Act of June 20, 1910, as amended.

S. 1721. FORT SILL INDIAN SCHOOL

Introduced by Mr. Thomas; read twice and referred to the Committee on Indian Affairs.

Authorizes expenditures of $40,000 for a fireproof gymnasium-auditorium, a shop building, and other repairs and equipment, at the Fort Sill Indian School, Lawton, Oklahoma.

S. 1772. RIVERSIDE INDIAN SCHOOL

Same as S. 1721, except that provision is for the benefit of the Riverside Indian School.

S. 2162. GAME AND FISH STATION

Introduced by Mr. Walcott and Mr. Hawes; read twice and referred to the Select Committee on Conservation of Wild Life Resources.

Provides for the establishment and maintenance of a game and fish demonstration station to be situated near the national capital for the training of men to become experts in fish culture, game farming, and game administration, lending such trained experts to the States and to agricultural colleges, making available to schools and colleges and others the results of the studies relating to fish, birds and animals. Authorizing $200,000 for the purchase of the site, and $50,000 a year for expenses. The Secretary of Agriculture, the Secretary of Commerce, shall jointly prescribe the rules and regulations under which cooperation with States and educational institutions shall be made, and the division of expenses, if any, apportioned between the Government and the State and other organizations.

S. 2328. BOARD OF EDUCATION, D. C.

Introduced by Mr. Capper; read twice and referred to the Committee on the District of Columbia.

Provides for the election of a Board of Education for the District of Columbia of nine members, to be chosen at annual elections, and to serve for three years.

H.J.RES.40. Identical with Senate Bill 1200.

H.J.RES.144. Introduced by Mr. Schafer; referred to the Committee on the Judiciary.

PULASKI DAY

Directs the President of the United States to proclaim October 11 of each year General Pulaski's Memorial Day, and to invite the people of the United States to observe the day in schools and churches or other suitable places, with appropriate ceremonies of the death of General Casimer Pulaski.

H.J.RES.146. Introduced by Mr. Ludlow; referred to the Committee on Rules.

ADMINISTRATIVE REORGANIZATION

Provides for the Creation of a Commission on the reorganization of the administrative branch of the government and the centralization of government. Commission to be composed of three members of the House appointed by the Speaker and three members of the Senate to be appointed by the Vice President, and three outstanding citizens to be chosen by the President of the United States.

"The duty of said commission shall be to make a study of government in all of its aspects and to report to the Speaker of the House and the President of the Senate not later than the opening of the regular session of Congress in December, 1932; (1) such recommendations as may seem to it advisable in regard to a reorganization of the administrative branch of the Government to eliminate duplications and to secure greater efficiency, economy, and dispatch in transacting the public business; (2) whether in its opinion the Government has departed from the concept of the founding fathers who wrote the Constitution of the United States and, if so, in what direction or directions; (3) what steps, if any, should be taken to counteract centralization, to restore the Government to its original purposes and sphere of activity as contemplated by the forefathers, whose lives and sacrifices established a free and independent nation, and to make secure to all coming generations the inestimable benefits and blessings of local self-government."

H. R. 57. Introduced by Mr. Chindblom and referred to the Committee on the Library.

Similar to Senate Bill 355.

H. R. 110. Introduced by Mr. Fulmer and referred to the Committee on Education.

Same as Senate Bill 136.

H. R. 138. COPYRIGHT Introduced by Mr. Vestal; referred to the Committee on Patents.

Provides for the amendment of the law relating to copyright registration of designs.

H. R. 139. COPYRIGHT Introduced by Mr. Vestal; referred to the Committee on Patents.

Provides for amendment and consolidating the acts respecting copyright and for the entrance of the United States into the Convention of Berne for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works. Provides for a copyright term extending to 50 years after the death of the author. Contains the same objectionable provisions regarding the importation by private individuals of books printed both in this country and in the country of origin that were included in the bill which failed to pass the Senate at the last session.

H. R. 215. DEPARTMENT OF GENERAL WELFARE Introduced by Mr. Lankford; referred to the Committee on Expenditures in the Executive Departments.

Provides for the creation of a Department of General Welfare "to aid, encourage, and promote the public schools, churches, lodges, labor federations, farm organizations, organizations of war veterans and descendants of veterans, patriotic clubs, community gatherings, and other legal assemblies and organizations, so that all the people of the several States and Territories and of the District of Columbia shall have larger educational, religious, fraternal, social, and recreational advantages, in order to secure a better mental, physical, spiritual, moral, and patriotic development of the people and in order that the general welfare may be provided and promoted, but without impairment of or the infringement upon the laws, the rights, duties, authority, or responsibilities of the several States, Territories, and the citizens thereof, with respect not only to the public agencies and institutions herein mentioned and referred to but likewise as to all private institutions, agencies of said character in the several States and Territories, and leaving to all the people the fullest and most complete religious liberty, unrestricted right of free speech, and most perfect freedom of

conscience in the exercise of all constitutional rights," with a Secretary of Welfare at a salary of $15,000, and an Assistant Secretary at a salary of $7,500.

Provides for the vesting in the Secretary of full authority to manage and control radio communications and for the maintenance of proper film or motion picture service for the purposes of this act, such motion picture films and apparatus and such radio service, shall be furnished to schools, colleges, universities, churches, etc., etc., upon request, without cost to the people of the United States as patrons and users, and no admission shall be made when same are exhibited or used. It shall not interfere with the usual tuition, dues or collections that may be charged or voluntarily given in such churches, schools, lodges or other gatherings. Department shall pay one-half the cost of school books, maps and other equipment in all States and provides for the payment by the States for the other half, State authorities in all cases to select and approve the books, maps, and equipment to be used in such State.

Provides that commercial advertising shall not be permitted over the radio within the United States. Commercial communications shall not be transmitted over the radio except upon the approval of the Department of General Welfare, and in such a way as not to interfere with the uses to which the radio service is herein dedicated. Political organizations, or parties, however, are entitled to the service set forth. Authorizes the appropriation of a billion dollars for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1931, or so much thereof as may be necessary.

H. R. 466. AGRICULTURAL EXPERIMENT STATIONS

Introduced by Mr. Selvig; referred to the Committee on Agriculture.

Provides for the free transmission in the mails of bulletins, reports and annual reports and reprints of articles of agricultural experiment stations.

H. R. 4593. UNIVERSITY OF THE UNITED STATES

Introduced by Mr. Kelley; referred to the Committee on Education.

Provides for the establishment in the District of Columbia of the University of the United States for the advancement of knowledge by means of instruction exclusively graduate and special, including all matters of governmental concern and by original research and investigation for the benefit of mankind. Control is to be

vested in a Board of Regents composed of the President of the United States, the Chief Justice, Commissioner of Education, the Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, the President of the University, and representatives one each from the National Academy of Sciences, the National Education Association, the American Association for the Advancement of Science, the American Association of Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, the American Social Science Association, the American Bar Association, the American Medical Association, the American Historical Association, the Washington Academy of Sciences, and the Carnegie Institution; together with five other citizens of the United States to be appointed by the President of the United States, by and with the consent of the Senate; and in a university council consisting of the Board of Regents and of representatives, one each, from all such institutions of learning in the United States as have one hundred or more graduate students holding degrees at least equal to that of bachelor of arts and pursuing regular graduate courses of study, whose term is not less than three years. Full membership in the University shall be for those only who have at least such attainments as are represented by the degree of Master of Arts or its equivalent. For use of the University there is authorized to be appropriated the sum of $25,000, the amount of George Washington's bequest for a National University, plus interest thereon at five per cent compounded annually from July 9, 1799, the date of his last will and testament, to the date of the passage of this act, and one million annually thereafter.

H. R. 4630. DEPARTMENT OF HOME AND CHILD

Introduced by Mrs. Owen and referred to the Committee on Expenditures in the Executive Departments.

Provides for the establishment of a Department of Home and Child with a Secretary, "he or she to receive a salary of $15,000 per annum." Fosters education, home and family life, and child welfare. There shall be transferred to the department the Office of Education (except those functions related to the education of natives in Alaska), Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor, all functions of the Public Health Service of the Treasury Department in respect of child health and hygiene and family health and home sanitation, all functions of the Attorney General of the United States relating to the National Training School for Boys, except those func-

tions relating to the approval of parole of inmates, all functions of the Board of Public Welfare for the District of Columbia relating to the National Training School for Girls and all functions of the Board of Trustees of the National Training School for Boys, all functions of the Federal Board for Vocational Education respecting vocational training and rehabilitation of children, all functions of the Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture in respect to clubs, correspondence and extension work for children; the Bureau of Home Economics of the Department of Agriculture, and any other bureau, service, or office of the government engaged in fostering and promoting education, home and family life and child welfare as directed by the President.

H. R. 4697. DEMONSTRATION PRIZE COUNTY

Introduced by Mr. McSwain; referred to the Committee on Agriculture.

Provides for the expenditure of $25,000 each year for a period of ten years in one county of each State in instructing, guiding, and assisting the farmers of such county in methods of soil building, diversification of crops, animal husbandry, fruit production, marketing of products and crops organization, and operation of creameries, canneries, packing houses, and other suitable industries and institutions for the assistance and encouragement of agricultural progress, and such other phases of the business of farming and of living on farms as may be deemed of greatest importance in each State. Personnel is to be appointed by the Secretary of Agriculture and the Board of Trustees of the Agricultural College of the State, in the same way as now obtains in the case of farm demonstration agents.

H. R. 4743. VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION AND PLACEMENT

Introduced by Mr. Bankhead; referred to the Committee on Education.

Provides for the appropriation of $1,500,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1933, and annually thereafter, for the promotion of vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise, and their placement in employment. For each dollar of Federal money expended there shall be expended in the State under the supervision and control of the State board at least an equal amount for the same purpose. Appropriates the sum of $100,000 annually commencing July 1, 1932, to the Federal Board for Vocational Education for the purpose of making studies, investigations and reports on the same subject.

H. R. 4757. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Introduced by Mr. Reed and referred to the Committee on Education.

Provides for the creation of a Department of Education "authorized to collect such statistics and facts and to make such investigations as shall show the condition and progress of education and of other community activities that vitally affect human development and to diffuse such information respecting schools and other social institutions as shall aid the American people in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems and as shall otherwise promote education and the educational aspects of community activities without impairing local autonomy or the responsibility of the citizens of the respective States, Territories, and outlying possessions to manage their own institutions whether conducted as public or private enterprises." Provides for a Secretary of Education with salary of $15,000 per annum and three Assistant Secretaries of Education, each with salary of $10,000 per annum. Provides for the transfer of the Office of Education to the new Department and the abolishment of the Office of Commissioner of Education, for the transfer of certain powers and duties of the Secretary of the Interior in connection with Federal grants and in connection with the Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Howard University. Abolishes the Federal Board for Vocational Education, repeals the requirements for matching of federal grants and for federal withholding of funds, and transfers the remaining powers and duties of that Board to the new Secretary of Education. Provides for the creation of an Inter-departmental Council on Education with one representative and one alternate appointed by the head of each Federal Department. Authorizes the appropriation of $1,500,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1932. The Department of Education is authorized to undertake researches in such phases of education or related activities at home and abroad as in the judgment of the Secretary of Education are significant in promoting the purposes for which the Department is established, and to organize and participate in conferences germane to the same.

H. R. 5489. CITIZENSHIP OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN

Introduced by Mr. Cable and referred to the Committee on Immigration and Naturalization.

Amends Section 1993 of the Revised Statutes to make any child, legitimate or illegitimate, born outside of the limits and jurisdiction of the United States a citizen of

the United States, provided either father or mother be at the time of the birth a citizen of the United States, provided either father or mother has at sometime resided in the United States. Provides that a minor child born without the United States of alien parents shall be deemed a citizen of the United States from the time the child begins to reside permanently in the United States, provided the father or mother be naturalized or resume American citizenship during the minority of the child. Provides that hereafter there shall be no distinction based on sex in the law or practice relating to nationality, citizenship, or naturalization.

H. R. 5655. REHABILITATION OF CRIPPLED CHILDREN

Introduced by Mr. Shott and referred to the Committee on Education. Covers much the same ground as H. R. 110 but provides for the appropriation of $2,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1933, instead of $3,000,000.

H. R. 5872. IMMIGRATION

Introduced by Mr. Dickstein; referred to the Committee on Immigration and Naturalization.

Provides that whenever an alien admitted temporarily as a tourist or temporarily for business or pleasure becomes eligible for admission under any other section of the Immigration Act of 1924, it shall not be necessary for such alien to depart from the United States in order to re-enter this country. The Secretary of Labor is authorized to prescribe by regulation such a method as will permit such an alien to enter this country without application for a visa to be made to any Consular officer.

H. R. 6007. ETHNOLOGY OF AMERICAN INDIAN

Introduced by Mr. Byrnes; referred to the Committee on the Library.

Authorizes the appropriation of $20,000 for cooperative work between the Smithsonian Institution and any State, educational institution or scientific organization in the United States in ethnological researches among the American Indian, and the excavation and preservation of archaeological remains.

H. R. 6188 MISSOULA METEOROLOGICAL STATION

Introduced by Mr. Evans of Montana; referred to the Committee on Agriculture.

Authorizes the appropriation of $10,000 for the establishment of a meteorological station at Missoula, Montana.

H. R. 6392. BOOKS FOR THE BLIND

Introduced by Mr. Free; referred to the Committee on the Post Office and Post Roads.

Provides for the free transmission in the mail of certain books, etc., intended for the use of the blind.

H. R. 6397. UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

Introduced by Mr. Swank; referred to the Committee on Indian Affairs.

Provides for the acceptance by the United States from the University of Oklahoma of a tract of land suitable for an institution for the higher education of native American Indians, and providing for the construction by the Secretary of the Interior of a building thereon, provided the University of Oklahoma will agree to establish a college of Indian education and research coordinate with other colleges in the University.

A copy of any of the above bills may be obtained by those interested on application to the Superintendent of the Document Room of the United States Senate or House of Representatives.

The Length of Class Periods

I. INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT

MANY years ago the North Central Association adopted as an acceptable standard for the accrediting of secondary schools the definition of a unit as five periods a week for thirty-six weeks with a minimum length of class periods of forty minutes. So great was the prestige of the association and so great the desirability of a place on its lists that almost as if by magic split unit programs disappeared from this area for all regular academic subjects and all work was properly standardized. Meanwhile laboratory experimental studies of economy in learning and in mental work from the pioneer investigations by Ebbinghaus in 1885 down to the present year have with one accord shown at least one principle or law of economy, viz.: that learning periods should be short and that they should be widely distributed. They have also shown that it is concentrated intense effort that educates. The implication of all these experiments, if carried over to the schools and under school conditions, is that two hours a week throughout a year would be better than four hours a semester, or again that two hours a week throughout two years would be more effective for learning than four hours a week for one year. Suggest this to a college faculty and you start an endless debate which only actual experiment could decide. We can't solve our educational problems by appointing committees to investigate and then count the votes. Not only does it seem likely from all that we know about economy in learning and mental work that our standard class periods may be too long—they have only an uncertain pragmatic sanction of appearing to work reasonably well—but it seems in the highest degree improbable, though uniformity may be an administrative convenience or necessity, that the optimal length of period and optimal distribution should be the same for all subjects or for that matter of all the units of instruction within any subject.

This gives point to the experiments authorized and approved by this association and the authorities of Iowa State Teachers College to be reported by Professor J. B. Paul. They are as carefully controlled at every stage as it seems humanly possible to control educational experiments in a concrete school situation. They yield the result that I think nine educational psychologists out of ten would have predicted. They are so significant, especially now that both students and teachers alike are in reaction if not in revolt in so many quarters against lectures and recitations and now that the principle is being so widely accepted of measuring actual achievement in some other way than time spent in the classroom, that similar experimentation at both the high school and college levels and with different subjects and different levels of student ability should, I believe, be encouraged or rather undertaken by this association. It is beyond the possibility for any single individual or any single institution to go very far in so complex a problem, but it is clearly one that ought to be attacked before confidence in the validity of the association's standards can be established.

V. A. C. HENMON,
University of Wisconsin.

II. EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

Obviously one of the chief functions of the recitation is to assist and stimulate learning on the part of the student. The question to be considered in this study is whether students who spend fifty-five minutes in class learn more than those who spend only thirty minutes in class. If they learn more, how much more do they learn? Is the additional amount learned in the fifty-five-minute period proportional to the additional cost and time spent? If it isn't proportional, what justification is there for our present practice in so far as length of class period is concerned?

As an introduction to the study it was thought desirable to learn what the present practice is in our institutions of higher learning relative to the length of class period and other related topics. The answers to an inquiry received

from one hundred American colleges and universities indicate that the following conditions now exist.

(1) The class period ranges from fifty to fifty-five minutes in 93 per cent of the institutions.

(2) When the number of minutes in the class period and in the interval between class periods is added, the result is sixty minutes in 86 per cent of the institutions. It would thus appear that in most of our colleges and universities, the length of the class period is influenced by the fact that there are sixty minutes in an hour.

(3) The shortest class period reported is forty-five minutes while the longest one is one hundred and twenty minutes.

(4) The present lengths of class period seem to be based on custom, size of campus, and the fact that there are sixty minutes in an hour. There appears to be no scientific basis for the present practice. In this particular study a comparison of the relative effectiveness for learning of a fifty-five and a thirty-minute period is made. The experiment was conducted at the Iowa State Teachers College during the spring and summer terms of 1930: During the spring term in the course entitled History and Principles of Education and during the summer term in Psychology I, Elements of Geography and English I. Three departments of the college, four different teachers, and a variety of subject matter is thus represented in the experiment.

The classes in these courses meet regularly for a period of fifty-five minutes, five times a week over a period of twelve weeks and the courses carry five hours of college credit. In each course in which the experiment was tried out a control and an experimental section were formed. The control and experimental sections were composed of matched groups made up of paired individuals, i. e., each person in the experimental section was paired with a person in the control section having equivalent ability. Certain placement tests, selected because of their power to predict performance in the courses, were used for the purpose of setting up these pairs.

The average enrollment in the control and experimental sections was thirty. The experiment is therefore based on

data collected from two hundred and forty cases. One hundred and twenty of these were in the experimental sections and one hundred and twenty were in the control sections. The control section in each course met for a period of fifty-five minutes and the experimental section for a period of thirty minutes. The same teacher had charge of both sections. The assignments were kept uniform for the two sections and were placed in the students' hands in mimeographed form.

For the purpose of measuring the amount learned during the course of the experiment, objective course tests were devised, varying in length from 236 to 366 items each. The course test was given as a pre-test at the beginning of the term's work and as a final test at the close. The gain made during the term was taken as a measure of the amount learned.

The control group made the greater gain in each of the four subjects. In one subject, Psychology I the difference in the amount gained by the fifty-five and the thirty-minute class was very small. It amounted, as a matter of fact, to only one-tenth of one point. The fifty-five-minute group gained 57.8 while the thirty-minute group gained 57.7. There was then really no difference in amount gained by the two groups in Psychology I. Speaking conservatively concerning the results of the experiment as a whole, i.e., including the four subjects, History and Principles of Education, Psychology I, Elements of Geography, and English I, we are safe in saying that the fifty-five-minute class period resulted in the greater amount of learning.

However, the crucial question is which of the lengths of class period is the more economical for learning, and in order to answer this question a comparison of the difference in amount learned by the control and experimental groups needs to be made. For this purpose we expressed the gains made in terms of sigma gains. The average of the sigma gains for the four control groups is 3.6, while for the experimental groups it is 3.3. The control group gain exceeds the experimental group gain by .3 sigma. The students who were in

the classes which met for fifty-five minutes each day, when considered as a group, learned .3 sigma more than did the students who were in classes which met thirty minutes each day. This will probably be more readily understood if expressed in terms of per cent. The control group class period exceeded the experimental group period in length by twenty-five minutes of 83.3 per cent. The control group having a class period 83.3 per cent longer than the experimental group learned 9.1 per cent more as measured by the use of objective tests. If the longer period, the fifty-five-minute period, is taken as the base from which to do the computing, the following result is obtained: reducing the length of the class period by 45.5 per cent, i.e., from fifty-five to thirty minutes, results in reducing the amount learned by 8.3 per cent. Obviously in so far as the two class periods are concerned, the shorter period is much the more economical.

The question naturally arises as to whether the shorter class period may not be a great handicap to the inferior students. In order to get some light on this question the record of gains made by the members of the four control classes was thrown together into a threefold table on the basis of placement test scores and gains made in the objective tests and compared with a similar arrangement of the records of gains made by members of the four experimental classes. The following statements based on these two tables may then be made.

(1) More students that were members of the thirty-minute classes made gains that are in accord with their placement test scores than did students who were members of the control group (experimental 53 control 33). Fewer members of the experimental group made lesser gains (experimental 35 control 43) and fewer made greater gains (experimental 32 control 44) than the placement test scores indicated they should make. Relative to the behavior of the members of the low third of the thirty-minute classes, the data indicate that they did not do quite so well as did the corresponding members of the fifty-five-minute classes. The short-class period, however, seems to have been an advantage to the better students.

The four teachers who participated in the experiment expressed themselves uniformly as preferring the fifty-five-minute class period. Fifty-eight per cent of the students in the thirty-minute class period indicated that they preferred the shorter period. Thirty per cent of these students indicated that they found it necessary to depend more on their own resources and work out the assignments more carefully on account of the short class period. Is it possible that we are spoon feeding our college students when, as a matter of fact, they would prefer to be treated as adults?

The objection may be raised that the course tests used did not measure all or any large part of what the student learned. Let us grant that the contention is true. If, however, these tests measure a fair sampling of what the students learned, then measuring all that they learned would not yield any essentially different results. The method here used is not essentially different from that found in industry. In developing a coal field, for example, a number of test holes are sunk and on the basis of the findings, the amount and quality of the coal beneath the surface is computed with considerable accuracy.

The objection may be raised that the most valuable products of classroom instruction are intangible and unmeasurable and that the results of this experiment are therefore misleading. Is it not highly probable that there is a high correlation between the measurable products of instruction and the so-called unmeasurable products? Is it not highly presumptuous to suppose that the tangible products are transmitted in the first half hour and the intangible in the last half hour? We sometimes criticize our churches on the ground that they do not take up readily with the newer methods of instruction. However, they have long since gone over to the practice of the theory that there are no souls saved after the first half hour. I judge we have all heard that remark attributed to President Hadley of Yale. A convocation speaker upon arising to address the Yale student body asked President Hadley how much time he might take. President Hadley replied: "You may take all the time you desire. We have a

tradition at Yale, however, that there are no souls saved after the first twenty minutes."

The objection may be raised, that while it is true there is some time saved in so far as the recitation is concerned, the student will more than make up for this in the greater effort he will need to put forth in order to master the subject. I am not acquainted with many college teachers who would have any serious objection to a plan of procedure that would stimulate the student to do better work. Suppose we look at the problem from the student's point of view. Well, 58 per cent of those who have had the experience say that they like it and prefer the shorter period.

Now in closing may I utter a word of caution. This study is too limited in scope. Too few cases are included to warrant any hard and fast conclusions. It does serve, however, to arouse some rather healthy suspicions.

(1) Is it possible that our present class period, built as it is to a large extent on the clock hour, is not the most economical length of period?

(2) Considering the reasons for its present length (the fact that there are sixty minutes in an hour), would it not be merely a matter of chance if it were found to be the most economical length of period?

(3) A thirty-minute period is revealed in this limited study to be almost as effective as a fifty-five-minute period and much more economical. What would be the effect of reducing the class period to twenty minutes? What would be the effect of having the class meet three times a week, twice a week or only once a week?

(4) This experiment was conducted almost entirely with freshmen. What would be the result if we were to try it out with sophomores, juniors, seniors?

(5) The very limited data that we have in this study tend to arouse the shadow of a suspicion that sophomores have learned to ride the recitation more successfully than have freshmen but that they have not to the same degree learned to master material when placed on their own resources. Is this true? This question can be answered only after a thorough study of the problem has been made.

We have all heard that remark about a university consisting of a student on one end of a log and Mark Hopkins on the other. Parenthetically we might remark that in recent years we have tended to emphasize the importance of the log. Is it possible that if he were to make some definite assignments, see that the materials are available and set up some rather definite inclusive objective tests that Mark might wander off into the woods occasionally with the assurance that when he returned he would find the student yet on top of the log. As far as the evidence is concerned, there would be fifty-eight chances in a hundred that the boy would say, "Well, Mark, I'm glad you took that walk."

We hear much these days and have in days past about it being the function of the teacher to draw the student out and get him to express himself. Is it barely possible that on the college level it were well for us to give the student an opportunity and the encouragement to draw himself out?

This limited study opens up a regular Pandora's box of problems that come out calling for solution. The same questions that are here raised concerning our present requirements in the matter of length of class period on the college level may with equal propriety be raised concerning requirements on the secondary level. These questions are too large for any *individual* to handle successfully. They are too large for any institution to deal with satisfactorily. Their presence calls for a bit of cooperative research, participated in by a number of institutions extending over a series of years and culminating in the accumulation of a mass of data that would serve as a scientific basis for administrative action. This North Central Association together with other similar agencies might well assume the leadership in such a program.

J. B. PAUL,
University of Iowa.

American Education During 1931[1]

AMERICA'S expenditure for education in 1931, as estimated by the Federal Office of Education, was $3,200,000,000. The number of pupils enrolled in public elementary schools during the year was approximately 21,211,325, in public high schools, 4,354,815, and in institutions of higher learning, 1,099,468. Private and parochial schools, both elementary and secondary, enrolled approximately 2,700,000 pupils in 1931. The total number of teachers in the United States is estimated at 1,029,000.

The 1931 elementary school enrollment was less than that of the estimated elementary school enrollment for 1930 which was 21,370,000. High school enrollment, however, jumped from 4,030,000, estimated in 1930, to 4,354,815 in 1931.

Because of a decrease in the number of children in the United States under five years of age, there will be appreciable decreases in first-grade enrollments within the next ten years, the Federal Office of Education points out, unless the trend, as indicated by Census records, stops. In 1930, there were 128,840 fewer children under five years of age in the United States than there were in 1920.

Of particular significance to American education during the past year has been state legislation enacted. A study of educational legislation in the Federal Office of Education, as yet incomplete, reveals considerable important legislation affecting school budgets and expenditures. North Carolina this year inaugurated what is probably the most striking example of state control of local school budgets in the history of the United States. The 1931 General Assembly of this state wrote into law the doctrine that "public education is a state function." The Delaware legislature authorized the governor to appoint a State Board of Budget Directors of 3 members to confer with those who seek state appropriations.

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[1] Release from the United States Office of Education.

These directors report their recommendations to the governor. New Hampshire provided for a state budget system and financial control during the year. New Jersey empowered the governing body of a municipality, after a school budget has been twice rejected, to certify the amount necessary for school purposes for the ensuing year. Arkansas strengthened county control of local school budgets.

Far-reaching recommendations concerning the policies and activities of the Federal Government with regard to the education of American people were submitted to President Hoover by the National Advisory Committee on Education in its final report. Greatest emphasis in this report was placed on conserving local autonomy and local responsibility by working, both in legislation and in administration, away from recent tendencies toward centralization in Washington of powers over the purposes and processes of education. Never before has such an important survey been made of the federal relations to education.

In July the National Survey of School Finance was launched. This four-year study authorized by Congress is already delving into significant problems concerning school finance, in an endeavor to aid states and communities in more efficient and economical organization and administration of their school systems.

The National Survey of the Education of Teachers, directed by the Federal Office of Education, is throwing considerable light on the much debated subject of teacher supply and demand. During the past year nearly a quarter million elementary school teachers supplied data for a study of teacher supply and demand. It was learned from this inquiry that every year in every school there is an average of 1 new teacher to every 5 teachers in the school. "Mobility" of teachers can be specifically associated with the "size of population," statistics showed. Administrators in sparsely-settled areas find it necessary to select 2 new elementary teachers for every 5, while there is generally one new teacher named for every 20 employed in cities of over 100,000 population. Acceptance of new positions in the

same state and marriage are the two greatets factors affecting teacher "mobility," according to data collected.

More than 800 high schools throughout the United States have been visited during 1930 and 1931 in connection with the National Survey of Secondary Education by the Federal Office of Education. This survey, which will be completed June 30, 1932, at a cost of $225,000, has been investigating the major problems of secondary education, and will furnish detailed reports of the innovating practices in organization, administration, financing, curricula, and articulation of the secondary school with lower and more advanced education.

Enrollment in vocational schools and courses during 1931 totalled approximately 1,125,000 pupils of all ages in evening, part-time, and all-day schools, according to the Federal Board for Vocational Education. The total increase in enrollment for 1931 over 1930 in this type of school exceeded 60,000. From 1918 to 1931, enrollment in all vocational schools federally aided has shown a rise from approximately 164,186 to 1,055,370. Apprentice and part-time cooperative training received considerable attention in the past year. Training of those already employed is growing in practice.

Studies made or received by the Federal Office of Education during 1931 reveal many interesting and important facts regarding the education of colored people. There are in the states having separate school systems, 3,326,482 Negro children of school age. Thirty-two per cent, or more than 1,000,000 of these, are not in school. Of those enrolled, more than one-third are in the first grade and 74 per cent below the fifth grade. Only 3.7 per cent of the total are in high school. Research in the three national surveys of education being directed by the Office of Education, and studies by the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools, are bringing together vital facts and statistics regarding Negro education in America.

The past year has seen the schools cooperating with the President's Organization on Unemployment Relief to increase school attendance and thus decrease the number of school-age persons competing with adults for employment. A recent

report of the Federal Office of Education revealed that increased holding power of schools eliminated from the employment market during the past ten years nearly 700,000 boys and girls sixteen to seventeen years of age.